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ABSTRACT

This contrastive grammar based on modern linguistic theory considers noun and verb phrases as the primary morphological and syntactical structure of language. A section on the noun phrase examines: (1) types of noun phrase constructions; (2) gender and number; (3) elements, expansion, and substitutes of the noun phrase. The material on the verb includes: (1) relationship of the verb and subject, (2) verb complements, (3) interrogation, (4) impersonal constructions, (5) voice, (6) French verb morphology, (7) mood, (8) tense and aspect, (9) modal auxiliaries, and (10) problem verbs. Concluding remarks focus on invariable words: adverbs, prepositions, conjunctions, and "voici" and "voila". For a companion document, see FL 001 798. (RL)

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THE GRAMMARS OF ENGLISH AND FRENCH

Stanley Lampach

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PREFACE

The aim of the present work is not to present a complete grammatical description of French, but rather, to examine a number of major areas of French grammar in the light of modern linguistic doctrines. At the same time, an attempt has been made to touch upon subjects not often discussed in reference grammars, and even less in school grammars. The emphasis of this study has been placed upon function, and within this framework, morphology and syntax are inextricably entwined. For practical reasons, both the written and the oral language have been dealt with. When notable differences exist between the two, they have been treated apart. As this work is intended primarly for the use of language teachers, the differences between French and English structure have been regularly indicated.

The present study has been divided into several major sections. The first section deals with the structure of the noun phrase: the noun, together with its various modifiers and complements. The second section treats the structure of the verb phrase: the verb and its various modifiers and complements. A third section is devoted to various other questions which do not enter into the framework of the two major structures constituted by the noun phrase and the verb phrase.

Stanley Lampach

CONTRASTIVE FRENCH GRAMMAR

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CONTRASTIVE FRENCH GRAMMAR.

I. GENERAL

Considered from an overall viewpoint, French grammar and English grammar show many points of similarity. Both languages stand in an intermediate position between languages like Latin or classical Greek or Russian, which possess numerous and highly diversified noun and verb inflections (declensions and conjugations) and languages like Chinese, or Vietnamese, in which the word is invariable, that is, the form of the word itself contains no indication of word class or grammatical function in the sentence. French contains a much higher number of invariable words than Latin, from which it is derived, and likewise English is much less inflected than Anglo-Saxon. Of the two -- French and English -- French is certainly the more inflected, containing a greater percentage of words which vary in form according to the contexts in which they occur. In most of these contextual cases, English has no inflected counterpart. This situation creates difficulty, for errors in the use of inflection are generally very noticeable and mark the foreigner immediately. At times it is even painful to listen to French in which, though the vocabulary employed may be acceptable, errors abound in the handling of the inflections, whether these be features of agreement (see further) or of conjugation. Although it is possible to establish the existence in French of word classes--such as nouns, verbs, etc.--it is not always possible to use the form of the word itself as the sole basis of definition. It is necessary also to examine the behavior of a given word in the sentence and particularly the way in which it can be combined with other words, the constructions into which it enters, and most particularly the word or words with which it stands in most intimate relationship. More rarely, combinatory features or obligatory features of inflection alone serve to differentiate classes of words. Both kinds of features, combinatory and inflectional, are formal differences. Generally, modern day linguistic analysis is based on formal criteria, which serve as the foundation for the classification of the forms of the language.

A. Inflection and Word Class in English

Before pursuing the present analysis of the French language, let us further consider several theoretical points which may further elucidate these matters, and, in particular, the concept of inflection as it exists in English, where it is often an overt indication of word class membership. The term inflection refers to the modifications which serve to express grammatical relationship within the sentence. For instance, English nouns most generally have more than one form; 1) the stem: boy /boi/, cat /kat/, kiss /kis/ and the stem plus a sibilant ending: boys /boiz/, cats /kats/, kisses /kisəz/; the difference is between the singular and plural forms of the noun. Likewise, the distinction between man and men, foot and feet is also an example of inflection but the process is different from that of the first set of examples. Instead of an ending there is variation of the vowel within the word. The latter forms are limited in number but occur, as is well known, in some very common words.

However, a definition of English words (in the examples given--nouns) on the basis of inflection alone would in many cases be ambiguous. For example, the sibilant suffixes given above could also represent the genitive case in English (e.g. the boy's hat /boiz/). If the difference between the plural forms and the genitive form is made in writing (boys vs. boy's or boys'; cats vs. cat's or cats', etc.), it is not made in the spoken language. (Words of the type man - men, of course, have different forms for the plural and the genitive: man - man's - men - men's.) Yet the existence of homophonous genitive and plural forms is rarely a source of confusion, for these generally do not occur in the same contexts. This is another way of stating that they do not combine in the same manner with other words or word-classes: the boys are coming, but the boy's teachers are coming. In the boys are in school, the boys' (e.g. books) are in school, ambiguity might arise, but here too, the context preceding the utterance probably would suffice to dispel any possible confusion.

Such formal ambiguity is not confined to nouns. From the examination of their form alone, it is impossible to know whether the difference between kiss and kisses represents a case of noun or verb inflection. In order to solve this question, it is necessary to examine the way these forms, when used in a sentence, combine with the other words of the sentence. Words which regularly may combine in a like manner with the other words of the sentence are considered to be members of the same word class. The words kiss and kisses are considered to be nouns in those contexts where their behavior is parallel to that of boy-boys, cat-cats, house-houses, when we say the kiss, a kiss, a big kiss, etc., as we say the boy, a boy, a big boy, etc. On the contrary, a form come is never a noun in English because we cannot say: the come, a come, a big come, but I come, she comes, the boys come, etc. When the forms kiss and kisses are used in contexts of this latter type they represent verb forms and not noun forms: I kiss, she kisses, the boys kiss are parallel to the examples with come. It is on the principle of formal criteria of this type rather than on any kind of general meaning, that grammatical categories and word-classes should be defined.

Definitions, such as those stating that a noun is a word which denotes a person, place or thing, and a verb, a word which designates an action or a process, are in reality more or less inexact generalizations based on the meaning of many, but surely far from all, words that are classed as nouns or verbs, the English expression a race and its French equivalent une course represent concepts which are actions rather than things, yet they are always quite definitely and justifiably classed as nouns just as much as the words a pencil, and un crayon. Race and course are nouns because their grammatical behavior as indicated by formal criteria is the same as that of all other words classed as nouns; they occur in identical contexts with nouns and combine with other words of the sentence in the same manner as other nouns. This principle of classification is basic to the establishment of word classes in most kinds of modern linguistic practice.

II. THE NOUN PHRASE IN FRENCH

The recognition of nouns and noun phrases in French raises no practical problems for the English-speaking learner. A noun in French is most often translated by a noun in English and, often, the accompanying modifying words show a considerable degree of parallelism. However, this facade of similarity conceals many deep-seated differences between the two languages.

The study of French nouns cannot be isolated from that of the noun modifiers of various kinds; in other words, the noun must be examined within the framework of the constructions in which it occurs.

If we leave aside for the moment the sub-class of proper nouns, it is rare for a noun in French to occur alone. Especially when it fills grammatical functions on the level of the sentence or the clause (e.g. when it is used as subject, object), the noun occurs rather as part of a noun phrase comprising a minimum of two elements, of which the noun is the core or head. The minimum noun phrase so constituted is made up of two types of elements--types which are also found in more complex noun phrases. In initial position appears the specifier which may be either a determiner or a numeral (or one of each). The specifiers form a small group of terms having a high degree of grammatical rather than purely lexical characteristics. This closed class (i.e. to which new expressions cannot be added) serves as the introducer of the noun phrase. The use of a specifier with the noun is obligatory in many contexts, i.e. a noun most often requires specification.

The second element of the noun phrase is the noun, which may be composed of two types of elements: substantives and adjectives, which, unlike the specifiers, are open classes, that is, contain a theoretically unlimited number of terms, to which the language always has the possibility of adding more as required for the needs of communications. The adjectives differ from substantives in that they do not have as their primary function the role of core, but are generally subordinated to the core. However, no really sharp line may be drawn between the two, either with respect to inflectional criteria or with respect to combinatory criteria; words like martyr - martyre, bavard - bavarde, saint - sainte, etc., are used as substantives and as adjectives. The adjective may follow or precede the noun it modifies, although the meaning may be altered by the position.

After these general remarks it is possible to distinguish the functional framework for the French noun phrase. This frame does not correspond very closely to the traditional divisions and classes of French grammar, but the reader will surely not lose his way.

specifier	noun
determiner - numeral	adjective - substantive - adjective.
closed class	open class (several noun complements may be added otherwise than by simple juxtaposition)

A. Types of Noun Phrase Construction

As already stated, a noun phrase contains at least one element of each fundamental type. Thus, a noun core may be accompanied simply by a member of either class of noun specifiers: examples with a determiner alone: le livre; ce garçon; ma tante; with a numeral alone: un crayon; deux garçons; quelques heures. These are minimal. The noun core may be accompanied at the same time by a determiner and a numeral: les deux livres. The noun core may be expanded by the addition of one or more modifying adjectives; the adjective in some cases precedes but more often follows the noun core: les beaux tableaux; deux beaux [illegible]es; ces enfants intelligents; les longues soirées glaciales. It may be noted here that the groups substantive-adjective, adjective-substantive are treated with respect to the class of specifiers like the noun core alone. The exception to this rule concerns the specifier des /dẹ/ which is often replaced, at least in literary style, by the form de /də/ when an adjective precedes the noun core and does not form with it a group felt to be a sort of compound word: *des livres intéressants* vs. *de bons amis*, but *des jeunes gens* (a compound word); but this usage is in no way absolute in present-day French; *des* may prevail generally in the usage of many speakers.

Finally, there may be attached to the noun phrase, and following it, various kinds of modifiers or complements. These may be simply juxtaposed and obligatorily follow the substantive: *la chambre cinq*; *le siège arrière*; *une voiture sport*, etc. Likewise, phrases introduced by a verbal form , present or past participle, are also juxtaposed: *un homme jouissant de ma confiance*; *une ville dévastée par la guerre*. A noun-modifying phrase may be introduced by a preposition: *le voisin de mon ami*; *la dame au petit chien*. This latter kind of construction can be further expanded: *le voisin du fils de mon ami*. The construction by means of a preposition is generally looser than the tie by juxtaposition. It should not be confused with other constructions which might at first sight seem parallel but which actually are the products of a pattern for forming compound words: *avion à réaction*; *sac à main*. Finally, a noun phrase may be modified by a clause introduced by a conjunction or a conjunctional phrase: *l'homme que j'ai vu*; *le moyen par lequel j'ai réussi*.

The above schema of the noun phrase may be illustrated by the following key words:

determiner	numeral	adjective	substantive (core)	adjective
les	*deux*	*beaux*	*arbres*	*verts*
				their complements
				de mon voisin, *que j'ai vus*...etc.

Proper names: *Jacques*, *Paul*, *Pierre*, *Paris*, etc., may occur alone without a specifier, but if they are accompanied by any kind of modifying word they are treated like other substantives: *le petit Pierre*, *le vieux Paris*.

The schema given does not indicate the status and place of occurrence of expressions of quantity which precede the noun phrase and are most usually linked to it by means of the preposition *de*: *beaucoup de livres*, *un peu de lait*, etc.

From the structural point of view, the English noun phrase is not vastly different. English has the equivalent of specifiers and numerals which occur in contexts parallel to those of French: *le livre* - *the book*, *deux hommes* - *two men*, etc. A sharp difference appears, however, after this point. English adjectives, and, generally, juxtaposed noun-modifying words regularly and necessarily precede the noun core: *a green wall* - *un mur vert*; *a stone wall* - *un mur de pierre*.

It may seem at first glance, from what has been stated above, that the difference between the English and French noun phrases is not very great. But the discussion has been mainly concerned with the order of occurrence of the various elements which enter into the noun phrase. If we now turn to the question of the internal organization of the French noun phrase, we shall find considerable difference from the situation in English.

B. Gender and Number.

The internal organization of the French noun phrase centers around the grammatical features of *gender* and *number*, which serve as a sort of cement between the noun core and the words which modify it, whereas in English the cement is essentially that of the order of the terms. If the terms gender and number are also used in describing English grammar, they do not always refer to phenomena that are similar or parallel to those of French from the standpoint of their functional behavior.

A French substantive is either of masculine or of feminine gender and is used either in the singular or the plural number. These grammatical features, intertwined, are present in addition to the lexical meanings of the substantive (and its determiners and modifiers). From the standpoint of spoken French these features do not as a rule receive their formal expression through inflection (i.e. change of form) of the substantive itself. Most (but not all) French substantives have a single form--that is, they remain invariable--whatever their gender or their number. This situation may be compared to a certain extent to the type of noun core exemplified in English by *deer*, *sheep*, etc. (*one deer*, *two deer*,...) which have the same form for the singular and the plural. In French, the units of the specifiers and adjective classes are the principal bearers of the gender and number features. Many specifiers, and particularly the determiners, and many adjectives are variable words. These have alternating forms, and the choice of a given form serves as the outward expression of the gender or number feature or both. Thus, the formal difference between French, *vert* /vęr/ and *verte* /vęrt/ marks a gender distinction; the distinction of form between *le* and *la* (determiners) is likewise one of gender; between these two and *les*, the distinction is one of number.

In writing, many distinctions which have no equivalent in oral language are indicated; an extreme example of this are the forms of the adjective *joli* (*joli* - *jolie* - *jolis* - *jolies*) which, except in linking (liaison) contexts, are all pronounced /žǫli/. When dealing with these questions of gender and number, care must always be taken to indicate whether one is referring to the spoken or to the written language. In the spoken medium especially but also in the written we may come across noun-modifying words which have a single form whatever the gender or the number of the noun modified. These are, however, relatively rare and in no way reduce either the Frenchman's sensitivity to the principle of variation nor the necessity, for the foreigner, to learn the formal characteristics of this principle.

In English the situation is quite different. "Gender" has no grammatical expression within the noun phrase itself but is limited to the third person singular pronouns (and here it is questionable whether the distinction is actually on the grammatical level). As for the expression of number, it is the substantive itself which is the principal bearer of the number feature, a feature most usually expressed by a sibilant ending (boy - boys, etc....) added to the noun, that is, by an inflection. The number of variable words which modify nouns is very limited in English and confined to the specifiers: this - these, that - those, alternations which mark a difference of number.

In French, of the two features, gender and number, gender is the more intimate feature of the substantive, whereas number is more peripheral. The speaker may choose the number feature: singular or plural but not the gender.

1. Gender

Every French substantive is characterized by the fact that it is necessarily a member of one of two classes of gender referred to traditionally as masculine and feminine. The terms gender, masculine, feminine are unfortunate because these terms suggest relationship with sex. Indeed, there is, in French, for some words, a distinct relationship between gender class membership and sex, but this parallelism is rather limited in scope, subject to exceptions, and best not insisted upon. At the most, substantives which denote living creatures of relatively easily determinable sex often exist in pairs: one masculine, denoting the male, and the other feminine, denoting the female: loup-louve, chien-chienne, chat-chatte, lion-lionne, acteur-actrice, boulanger-boulangère. But, at the same time we find substantives like sentinelle, recrue which are both feminine gender, even though they refer almost exclusively to male beings. Words like professeur, écrivain, auteur are always masculine even when they refer to a woman exercising these professions. To indicate here that a woman is specifically meant, French resorts to a lexical device: une femme écrivain, une femme professeur, etc. However, the greatest mass of nouns denote things that are lifeless and have, for this reason, no sex. Words of this kind, too, are also necessarily members of one of the two gender classes of the language: table, chaise, maison, etc., are feminine, lit, mur, four, etc., are masculine.

Gender, in French, is a grammatical feature and an inherent characteristic of every French noun. It has an arbitrary, conventional nature for the most part, (i.e. non-logical) and must be learned for each substantive along with its form and meaning. In order to use a French noun correctly, it is absolutely essential to know to which gender class it belongs. With few exceptions, a native French speaker has specific and unambiguous knowledge of the gender of each substantive he uses. Note: Errors of gender are very noticeable. Especially when they occur in words in general use and are known to the vast majority of French speakers, they mark the speaker making them as a foreigner, and, when frequent, may make such speech extremely unpleasant to French ears, even when other speech factors are acceptable. As English has no counterpart for gender, an appreciable learning problem is created for English speakers learning French. For, in reality, English substantives do not belong to gender classes. What is sometimes called gender in English is marked solely by the difference between *he*, *she*, *it*. The use of these pronouns is not based upon a gender feature inherent in the noun they replace in the sentence, but principally by direct reference to reality: *he*, *his* = male; *she*, *her* = female; *it*, *its* = lifeless or indeterminate sex. The possible use of *she* in speaking of *boats*, *autos* does not have the same kind of compulsory character as that established for the French gender feature, but implies rather affectionate reference.

In a preceding paragraph it was stated that *table*, *chaise*, *maison* were feminine substantives and *lit*, *mur*, *four*, masculine. How do we recognize this? In French, the substantive as a rule does not carry within itself the sign of its gender membership. This feature is most usually shown by the form of one of the several noun modifiers, substantives and adjectives accompanying it. Many of these words are variable and occur in pairs; one element of the pair being used with feminine substantives and the other with masculine ones: *la table*, *la chaise*, *la maison*; *une table*, *une chaise*, *une maison*; *ma table*, *ma chaise*, *ma maison*; *cette belle table*, *cette belle chaise*, *cette belle maison*, etc. These may be compared with: *le lit*, *le mur*, *le four*; *un lit*, *un mur*, *un four*; *mon lit*, *mon mur*, *mon four*; *ce beau lit*, *ce beau mur*, *ce beau four*, etc. The native or fluent speaker of French knows that a given substantive determines the choice of this or that form of noun-modifier. The only way of ascertaining the gender of a substantive is by reference to the forms assumed by these modifiers when they accompany it. When a native French speaker, on being asked, hesitates about the gender of a given substantive he simply employs the substantive with a variable modifier, thus dispelling any doubt. An analogous procedure could be advantageously applied for teaching French substantives to non-native speakers. These should always be given with an accompanying variable-type modifying word: le livre, la table, ce livre, cette table, never simply as masculine or feminine. It is by no means exceptional for substantives to appear in contexts that give no clue as to their respective genders: des chaises, des lits do not show that chaises is feminine and lits masculine; substantives that begin with a vowel, such as âne, âme occur most frequently in contexts, such as l'âne, l'âme, that do not outwardly indicate that âne is masculine and âme feminine. It is among substantives beginning with a vowel that educated native French speakers may be found to hesitate between one gender or the other: un après-midi (m.) or une après-midi (f.), un autoroute (m.) or une autoroute (f.). Among the variable modifiers that can be readily used with any substantive, the numeral set un-une is the one that preserves the distinction between a masculine and a feminine form in all situations and could therefore be regularly used as a test of gender.

This conformity of variable-type modifying words with respect to the gender feature is one case of what is called agreement (in French "accord"). It should be clear that the absence of formal agreement does not mean that the substantive loses its gender: bottes remains a feminine in les bottes jaunes although its context is the same as that of the masculine souliers in les souliers jaunes, les and jaunes being forms that do not vary in gender; if a variable adjective like beau(x), feminine belle(s) is added, formal agreement appears: les belles bottes jaunes; les beaux souliers jaunes.

The difference in gender becomes informative as soon as the substantive, though not expressed, is understood: les petites, which stands for les petites filles, is different from les petits, i.e. les petits garçons; one can differentiate between two persons or things by referring to one as celui-là (m.) and the other as celle-là (f.), if for instance the former is a book (livre, m.) and the latter a chair (chaise, f.). The fact that a certain number of otherwise homophonous words are distinguished solely by their gender is only a lexical characteristic: le livre - la livre. Of the two French genders, the masculine is dominant in the sense that if reference is made to a number of persons or things designated by substantives of different genders, the masculine will be used even if there is only one masculine substantive out of a hundred.

2. Number

The second grammatical feature characterizing the noun phrase and to which the principles of agreement may also apply, is that of number. French like English distinguishes grammatically between singular and plural, but the manner in which number receives its expression is quite different in both languages. In English the expression of number is closely attached to the substantive itself, taking most usually the form of a sibilant suffix (boys /boiz/), or more rarely a vowel alternation within the noun (man - men). In spoken French, the expression of number carried within the form of the noun itself is rare. Most French nouns do not change their spoken form with respect to the feature of number but they do most often change their written form. For this reason, care must be taken to indicate whether one is referring to oral language or to written language. Examples: *la femme* /fam/ (singular) - *les femmes* /fam/ (plural); *le mur* /myr/ - *les murs* /myr/, are examples of the first and by far the most usual type. *Oeuf* /øf/ - *oeufs* /ø/, *général* /žẹnẹral/ - *généraux* /žẹnẹrọ/, *vitrail* /vitraj/ - *vitraux* /vitrọ/ are examples of substantives in which the number feature is expressed by a change of form of the substantive itself.

In English the parallel between spelling and speech with respect to the expression of number is general; a written number mark corresponds to a spoken number mark, e.g. (*boy* /boi/ - *boys* /boiz/). In French this is rather unusual. The written plural markers (-*s* or -*x* generally) do not correspond to an orally expressed marker. Pairs of terms distinguished in writing such as *homme* - *hommes*; *table* - *tables*; *cheveu* - *cheveux* are pronounced indentically. Sometimes the relationship between spelling and oral speech is highly unexpected: *oeuf* - *oeufs*, *boeuf* - *boeufs* conform in their written form to this usual pattern -- addition of -*s* -- but in speech the difference is marked by the presence or the absence of the final /f/; and a shift in the quality of the vowel: *boeuf* /bøf/ singular, *boeufs* /bø/ plural.

Actually, if we base our study on the spoken language primarily, the expression of the number distinction in French is rather heterogeneous. It is marked in one of several ways which are not necessarily mutually exclusive.

1) By differences of the form of the noun itself, as described above, or, in writing only, by the addition of a plural ending (-*s* or -*x*).

2) By the form of a variable noun-modifying word. The most clearcut, and, undoubtedly, the most usual, indication of number is given by the variations in form of the noun determiners which frequently accompany the substantive. Except for one form, (*leur* /lør/ [singular] - *leurs* /lør/ [plural]) they always clearly mark the distinction between the singular and the plural: *le livre* /l.../ - *les livres* /lẹ.../; *la ferme* /la.../ - *les fermes* /lẹ.../; *ce mur* /s .../ - *ces murs* /sẹ .../; *mon ami* /mǫn ami/ - *mes amis* /mẹz ami/, etc.

If the alternating forms of adjectives indicate difference of gender with considerable frequency, they more rarely show a distinction of number, especially in the oral language. In writing the number indication is regularly marked (-*s*, -*x*). This difference between speech and writing is often a source of spelling mistakes for many French people.

However, there exists among adjectives (and also substantives) a formal type which had alternating forms corresponding to the number distinction. Here most of the adjectives whose masculine singular form is in -*al* /al/ have a masculine plural form - *aux* /ọ/: *général* - *généraux*; *principal*, *principaux*.

Sometimes the appearance of a plural marker is intermittent and linked to the existence of an initial vowel sound of the following word, that is, in cases where linking (liaison) is possible. Here in oral language the final /z/ of the linking form serves as a mark of the plural: *leur enfant* /lørãfã/ (singular) - *leurs enfants* /lørzãfã/, *quel grand homme* /kelgrãtǫm/ - *quels grands hommes* /kelgrãzǫm/.

Besides such linking, a few frequently occuring noun modifiers have, before a following word beginning with a vowel, a special masculine singular form distinct from the masculine plural form: quel beau fils - quel bel enfant /bẹ́lãfã/ quels beaux enfants /bọ́zãfã/.

3) When a noun phrase functions as the subject of a sentence or a clause, the form of the verb may sometimes indicate the singular-plural distinction: leur maison se vendra cher - leurs maisons se vendront cher. In this latter case the only singular-plural distinction of the sentence is expressed by the form of the verb (cf. English: he comes - they come).

4) Number may be expressed lexically by means of numeral specifiers: un, deux, trois, plusieurs, quelques, etc. un livre, deux livres, or by the use of quantifying expressions like: beaucoup de (livres); peu de (gens) (cf. English, many sheep, two books) etc.

In a given spoken sentence, the difference between singular and plural does not necessarily have to have formal expression. In a pair of sentences like: leur belle maison coûte cher and leurs belles maisons coûtent cher, the written language marks the plural four times, but when spoken the two sentences are absolutely identical.

A number of practical conclusions may be drawn from this discussion. Firstly, a sharp line must be drawn between oral and written French. Secondly, the number distinction is not to be sought, as generally in English, in the form of the noun itself but rather in the form of other words which enter into grammatical relationships with the substantives. It is probably best to teach that the vast majority of

French nouns do not vary according to number and the ones that do constitute the exceptions to the general rule.

C. Elements of the Noun Phrase

We may now proceed to an examination of the various types of words that enter into the noun phrase.

1. Noun Specifiers

Let us begin with the specifiers, which are of two types: determiners and numerals. If the distinction between specifiers and nouns is quite sharp, that between the two kinds of specifiers, is much less so. Generally speaking, the presence of a member of the determiner class in the noun phrase serves to express definiteness. The absence of such a term is a mark of indefiniteness. Thus, a noun phrase introduced only by a numeral specifier is, by nature, indefinite, the numeral indicating the number of units of the substantive involved or simply marking an indeterminate number. The specifier des constitutes a rather special case, for it behaves, formally speaking, like a determiner but stands in close relationship with the numerals; it seems to stand astride both types of specifier. A French noun or noun phrase is necessarily either definite or indefinite.

a) The determiners

The determiners regularly occupy the initial position in the noun phrase, and generally serve to specify not only the substantive to which they are subordinate, but the entire noun phrase. They form a small class of mutually exclusive terms standing in close relation one with another. The occurrence of any given determiner excludes the presence of another within the same noun phrase.

The determiners are as follows (the masculine singular form of these variable words is given): le (also called the definite article); ce (also called the demonstrative adjective); mon, ton, son, notre, votre, leur (also called the possessive adjectives). To these are added the interrogative determiner quel and the partitive specifier du (de la, des).

The noun determiners are variable-type words presenting formal differences of gender and number. These alternations may be stated as follows:

Singular

		I. Masculine	II. Feminine	III. Before a following word beginning with a vowel only; masculine and feminine
1	basic determiner	le /lə/ and /l/	la /la/	l' /l/
2	demonstrative	ce /sə/ and /s/	cette /sęt/	cet (m) /sęt/ cette (f)
3	possessive	mon /mõ/	ma /ma/	mon /mõn/ and /mǫn/
4		ton /tõ/	ta /ta/	ton /tõn/ and /tǫn/
5		son /sõ/	sa /sa/	son /sõn/ and /sǫn/
6		notre /nǫtr/	notre /nǫtr/	notre /nǫtr/
7		votre /vǫtr/	votre /vǫtr/	votre /vǫtr/
8		leur /lør/	leur /lør/	leur /lør/

The partitive specifier and the sequence: de + basic determiner have the following variable forms:

9	du /dy/	de la /də la/	de l' /dəl/

The sequence à + basic determiner has the following variable forms:

10	au /ọ/	à la /ala/	à l' /al/

The interrogative determiner has the following variable forms:

11	quel /kęl/	quelle /kęl/	same as before /an initial consonant

Plural

		IV. Masculine and Feminine	V. Before an initial vowel only
1	basic determiner	les /lẹ/	les /lẹz/
2	demonstrative	ces /sẹ/	ces /sẹz/
3	possessive	mes /mẹ/	mes /mẹz/
4		tes /tẹ/	tes /tẹz/
5		ses /sẹ/	ses /sẹz/
6		nos /nọ/	nos /nọz/
7		vos /vọ/	vos /vọz/
8		leurs /lør/	leurs /lørz/

The partitive specifier and the sequence: de + basic determiner have the following variable forms:

9	des /dẹ/	des /dẹz/
	de /d/	d' /d/ (when separated from the substantive by an adjective)

The sequence à + basic determiner has the following variable forms:

10	aux /ọ/	aux /ọz/

The interrogative determiner has the following variable forms:

11	quels /kęl/ quelles /kęl/	quels /kęlz/ quelles /kęlz/

A certain number of features stand out in this chart: first, the majority of determiners show the masculine-feminine distinction: they only have one plural form, the same for both genders. Secondly, with the exception of *leur*, *quel*, *au*, the singular and the plural are distinguished orally. For these three latter forms, (*leur enfant* - *leurs* (*z*) *enfants*) the singular-plural distinction exists only before a following word beginning with a vowel. The formal distinction of gender is somewhat less extensive. Thus, we find identical forms for both genders:

1) in the plural,
2) before a word beginning with a vowel,
3) for *notre*, *votre*, *leur*, *quel*.

All the forms which in the singular, make a formal distinction between the two genders (1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 9, 10) also have a special singular form used before words beginning with a vowel and which in oral language is identical for both genders. The written form is also identical for both genders with the exception of *cet* (feminine *cette*). The handling of this prevowel variation requires practice: *sa maison* but *son autre maison*; *cet ami*, but *ce bon ami*, etc...

1) *le*

The determiner with the traditional name of "definite article" is taken to be basic because most other determiners may generally be considered to have as their meaning that of *le* ("definiteness") plus another feature.

Le is probably the most frequently occurring of the determiners. Its usual function is to indicate that the noun or noun phrase is already known to the speaker, or already mentioned in the course of the communication, or present in his mind, that is, it is a question of something definite, or identified. In this respect *le* corresponds to *the*, which occurs with approximately the same meaning. However, there are a number of cases in which the two languages deviate. In French the basic determiner is often used where in English a possessive adjective occurs. For instance, it is usual to say, in French: *il s'est cassé la jambe* (*he broke his leg*); *il a perdu la mémoire* (*he lost his memory*). This usage is frequent with nouns which designate objects whose possession is more or less unalienable, such as parts of the body, or moral or mental characteristics, and is more usual when the noun phrase is not the subject of the sentence: *son bras s'est coincé dans la porte* - *il s'est coincé le bras dans la porte*. In the latter example, the possessor is indicated by an object pronoun attached tothe verbal form. Sometimes both constructions occur: *le dos me fait mal* or *mon dos me fait mal*. When the substantive is accompanied by an adjective, the possessive adjective is generally used and not the basic determiner: *Elle ferme les yeux*, but *elle ferme ses beaux yeux*.

The presence of some kind of specifier in the French noun phrase is of much higher frequency than in English. Its absence occurs only in a few particular contexts and generally with unmodified proper names. Particularly there are a number of cases where French requires the use of the basic determiner but English may employ none at all. Thus: *il aime la vie*, but *he loves life*; *l'amour et la haine sont des sentiments forts*, *love and hate*...

French substantives used with collective or generic meaning, that is, referring to the totality of whatever the substantive signifies, are preceded by the basic determiner. In English this is sometimes the case when the noun is employed in the singular: *le chien est le meilleur ami* *de l'homme*, *the dog is man's best friend*. However, in many other cases no article is used in English: *la guerre est un malheur*, *war is a misfortune*. Likewise, many words designating generally something uncountable may often occur without *the* in English but not in French: *Food is vital* - *la nourriture est essentielle*; *they raise wheat* - *ils cultivent le blé*; *he spilled ink on the table* - *il a renversé l'encre sur la table*. On the other hand in the use of a plural form, which both in French and English can be employed with this total or collective meaning, the two languages diverge sharply. Such French nouns always occur with the basic determiners *les*, whereas their English counterparts are most often characterized by the absence of a determiner: *j'aime les chiens* - *I like dogs*; *les diamants coûtent cher* - *diamonds are expensive*; *les explosifs sont forts dangereux* - *explosives are very dangerous*. *Les Américains sont riches* - *Americans are rich* (with approximately the same meaning it is possible to say: *The Americans*...). This, of course, does not exhaust the question, but we may say that, in the French noun phrase, the absence of a specifier in contexts such as sentence subject or object, cannot, as in English, serve as a sort of specifier in itself. In French, the absence of a specifier does not serve as a formal possibility within the system of specification. Thus French does not make a formal distinction between the generic or collective sense of nouns and the "definite sense", the contextual meaning alone marks the difference, whereas in English a distinction between the two is often possible, because of the opposition Ø/the. (Ø is used to symbolize zero, i.e. the absence of an element.) The English zero appears to be associated rather with the notion of "indefinite" which may also be marked in English by *a* or *an*. In fact this same opposition Ø/the has affinities with a distinction of another type, the expression of partitive or of indefinite.

b) *ce*

Ce has the meaning of definiteness plus that of indication. French has only one such determiner: *ce* (*cette*, *cet*, *ces*). To be more precise, it may however take one of two particles -*ci* and -*là*, placed after the noun, (*ce livre-ci*, *cette table-là*), the former indicating that which is nearer the speaker, spatially or psychologically, and the latter that which is farther from the speaker. In this kind of context the meaning of the respective expressions corresponds rather closely to that of English *this* and *that*. But this distinction is really made only when both *ce*...-*ci* and *ce*...-*là* are used in the same sentence to contrast two things. Otherwise the French are often found to use *ce*...-*ci*, and *ce*...-*là* indiscriminately, *ce*...-*ci* being however somewhat more formal than *ce*...-*là*. In any case, when there is no ambiguity, *ce* alone suffices to render either one of these English expressions. English learners should use the particles -*ci* and -*là* most sparingly.

3) *the possessives*

The possessive determiners have as their meaning that of definiteness (*le*) plus the relation to person. Three grammatically relevant persons are distinguished: 1) the speaker or two or more persons including speaker, first person; 2) the person (or persons) addressed, second person; 3) all others, third person. This distinction of person is the same as that found in the system of the personal pronouns. It is not necessary here to enter into a detailed analysis of these determiners but rather to limit the discussion mainly to the differences between the French possessive determiners and their English counterparts.

First, these French determiners, variable words, agree in gender and number with the noun they specify; their masculine or feminine form is used accordingly: *mon livre*, *ma table*, *mes livres*. The agreement in gender has absolutely no relation to the sex of the possessor, only to the gender of the noun core. In English, the possessive determiners are generally invariable (cf. *my book*, *my table*, *my books*) with respect to the substantive they accompany. However, there does exist a variation in the series: *his*, *her*, *its*, often referred to as a distinction of gender. Actually, the reference here is to the sex of the possessor, a feature not at all formally expressed by the French possessive determiners. *Son prix* may mean *his price*, *her price*, *its price*; *sa vie*, *his life*, *her life*, *its life*, etc. according to the context. In order to distinguish in French between e.g. *his* and *her*, it is necessary to add *à lui* "*his*", *à elle* "*her*", *son livre à lui*, *son livre à elle*, but this is only done in cases of ambiguity or for emphasis. English like French tends to distinguish between reference to the individual possessor and the non individual or group possessor: *mon*-*notre*, *my*-*our* (*notre* and *our* denote speaker plus one or more other persons); *son*-*leur*, *his* (*her*,*its*)-*their*; this is part of the meaning of the various possessive determiners and must never be confused with the grammatical agreement in number: *notre maison*-*nos maisons*; *mon repas*-*mes repas*. Finally the difference between *ton* and *votre* requires several remarks, but these will be given in the course of the discussions of the personal pronouns *tu* and *vous*.

4) *quel*

The interrogative determiner *quel* is by nature somewhat different from other specifiers; it does not have the same clearcut connotation of "definiteness" as the others; its use generally marks a request for some kind of specification, or supplement of information. It covers approximately the same range of meaning as English what and which. Quelle maison cherchez-vous? Which house are you looking for? Quelles langues parlez-vous? What languages do you speak? It also occurs in exclamative sentences: Quel homme! What a man!

The specifier du, des will be discussed after the numerals.

b) The Numeral Specifiers

The numerals form the second class of specifiers. They do not stand in a mutually exclusive relation with the determiners but may generally coexist with one of the latter in the noun phrase: ex. les deux garçons. In this case, the numeral always follows the determiner. However, the numeral may occur alone introducing the noun phrase. Here the meaning of the noun phrase is that of "indefiniteness," because of the absence of a determiner.

The numerals as their name indicates serve to quantify and to number. As quantifiers, they denote the number of units of whatever the substantive refers to. They are of two major types: the numbers, or count numerals, un, deux, trois, etc., and the indefinite numerals, plusieurs, quelques, divers, etc.

1) un, une

The most frequently employed numeral specifier is undoubtedly un-une, often called the indefinite article. This designation is not particularly apt for as already seen un does not stand in a mutually exclusive relation with le, the so-called definite article. Un is indefinite because no member of the determiner class stands before it. Actually, in the pair of plural forms: les deux garçons - deux garçons is parallel to: le garçon - un garçon. The singular form le garçon marks not only definiteness but also the unit one, as opposed to the plural les garçons. In English the distinction between a numeral one and an indefinite article a, an, may be justified by the formal difference between the forms, but in French there is only one variable word: un-une.

2) quantifying numerals

For the most part the French and English numbering systems are not very different. However, there are a number of differences between French and English which might be usefully underlined and a few subtle points which merit attention. There are only three simple numbers which are variable words in French. There are none in English. Of these un-une is the only one which shows variation in gender. Un garçon - une fille. This variation in gender occurs also when this un-une is the final term of a complex number used to quantify: trente et un garçons - trente et une filles. Vingt and cent may sometimes take a number marker.

In addition, the numerals present a number of contextual variations which may be usefully noted. Certain numerals have up to three variant forms in speech. The written form however is always the same.

I		II	III
before a consonant		before a vowel only (linking form)	before pause
deux	dø	døz	dø
trois	trwa	trwaz	trwa
quatre	katr (ə), (kat)	katr	katr (ə), (kat)
cinq	sẽ	sẽk	sẽk
six	si	siz	sis
sept	sęt	sęt	sęt
huit	yi	yit	yit
neuf	nøf	nøf (nøv)	nøf
dix	di	diz	dis
vingt	vẽ	vẽt	vẽ
cent	sã	sã and sãt	sã

Examples of the above chart: *six garçons* /si/ (Col. I), *six enfants* /siz/ (Col. II), *j'en ai six* /sis/ (Col. III).

In dates, before the names of the months beginning with a consonant, the forms either of Col. I or Col. III may be used: *le 5 fevrier* /l(ə) sẽ/ or /sẽk fẹvriẹ/; before names of months beginning with a vowel the forms of Cols. II or III may be used: *le 2 avril* /l(ə) dø/ or /døz avril/. (Note: *le premier mai*, *le premier avril*). Column III forms are used when the numerals are used for numbering or for counting purposes rather than as quantifiers: *chambre dix* /dis/, *Henri V* /sẽk/, *dix* /dis/ *moins six* /sis/ *égale quatre*. In the expressions *neuf heures*, *neuf ans*, the linking form of *neuf* is pronounced /nøv/, in other cases /nøf/: *neuf enfants* /nøfãfã/. In *dix-sept* the first element is best pronounced /di/. In *dix-huit* and *dix-neuf* it is pronounced /diz/. When *vingt* is followed by a unit number: *vingt-deux*, *vingt-huit*, etc...it regularly has the form /vẽt/. However, in the numbers from 81 to 99, into whose formation the numeral *vingt* enters, it is the form /vẽ/ that always occurs: 81 /katr vẽ ẽ/ etc... However in the numeral 80, when it serves to quantify, we find the spelling *vingts*, *quatre-vingts*: *quatre-vingts chasseurs* (but *page quatre-vingt*). In speech, this plural mark may receive formal expression before a following adjective or substantive beginning with a vowel: *quatre-vingts hommes* /katrə vẽzọm/ but this linking is not obligatory; many speakers do not link here except in a few more or less set expressions to which the last example given belongs, and say, for instance: /katr vẽ ọditør/ *quatre-vingts auditeurs*, without linking; these constitute optional variants, style (euphony) or individual factors intervene in the choice made.

Cent (100) may have a linking form /sãt/; *cent hommes* /sãtọm/, whose occurence cannot be considered to be general outside of a few consecrated expressions (see remarks concerning *quatre-vingts* above).

Cent hommes, *cent ans* /sãtǫm/, /sãtã/ seem very frequent but many people say /sã ǫrãž/ *cent oranges*, /sã ẹtwaī/ *cent étoiles*. Perfect multiples of 100: 200, 300, etc. are written *deux cents*, *trois cents*, when these are used to quantify: *deux cents hommes*; *trois cents soldats*. In speech in contexts where linking may occur, an alternating form of *cents* /sãz/ is a possibility: *deux cents hommes* /døsãzǫm/. In all other cases, i.e. not perfect multiples, we find the spelling *cent* and the spoken form /sã/; *deux cent un* /dø sã ẽ/; *le numéro deux cent* /dø sã/.

3) *indefinite quantifiers*

The indefinite numerals which quantify generally but without furnishing specific numerical values like the numbers, precede the substantive they modify and may introduce the noun phrase without being preceded by a determiner. Some of these numerals may be preceded or not by a determiner, others occur only without a determiner; these latter elements have most usually "indefiniteness" as an inherent part of their meaning, and are incompatible with a determiner. The indefinite numerals which may occur alone or preceded by a determiner are: *divers*, *différents* (both plural), *quelques*, *plusieurs*. *J'ai pris quelques jours de repos*. *Les quelques jours de repos que j'ai pris*. *Divers* and *différents* may also occur after the substantive: in this context they function as adjectives: *des mouvements divers*; *des costumes différents*. *Quelque* may be used with singular substantives: *quelque temps*; *quelque grain*. Other words of this category have more restricted usage. Thus, *chaque* (each), occurs only as a noun phrase introducer and only accompanies singular nouns. *Maint* (many), a literary word essentially, is never preceded by a determiner. Likewise *tout* (any, all),: *tout homme*; *tous renseignements*. *Certain* has a behavior which resembles partially that of an ordinary adjective and partially that of an indefinite numeral. For the singular, it is usual to say: un certain (sourire) cf. un beau sourire, although certain alone is possible at least in the classical literary language, certain jour, but with a plural noun this word may open the noun phrase; il pose certaines conditions. Likewise, tel (such, any): tel autre homme (some such other man); un tel homme (such a man). In this latter kind of phrase, tel can only be preceded by un, une (singular) or de (plural): de telles idées.

A special class of indefinite numeral specifiers is formed by the three negative words: aucun, nul and the complex form pas un. These always introduce the noun phrase in which they occur. They generally have as a concomitant feature the obligatory use of the negative particle ne before the verb of the sentence or clause in which they occur: aucun médicament ne pourra le guérir; je n'ai trouvé aucun moyen d'en sortir; nul homme ne l'approuve. But when aucun, nul occur after sans and in a few other contexts: j'ai effectué le travail sans aucune difficulté, ne is not employed.

To the class of indefinite specifiers may be added such complex forms as: n'importe quel (livre).

4) même, autre, propre

In a class apart are même (same), expressing identity and autre (other), expressing difference. These words, like ordinary adjectives do not occur without some sort of preceding specifier, determiner or numeral, but on the other hand, they are not substitutable or interchangeable with adjectives and always precede these when they both coexist in the noun phrase: une autre belle fête; les mêmes idées que moi; certains autres penseurs. Finally, there is the possessive intensifier propre (own): mes propres réflexions, le propre fils du roi. The indefinite numerals are variable words and are subject to the principle of agreement in gender and in number.

5) *du (de la, de l'), des*

The study of this specifier, traditionally called the partitive article raises special problems. It stands astride the classes of determiners and numerals and has no close counterpart in English. From the point of view of its form, this specifier is composite; its various forms are exactly the same as those of the sequence *de* plus the basic determiner *le* - (*du*, *de la*, *de l'*, *des*), but as it behaves often very differently from the sequence *de* plus basic determiner and occurs rather in the same contexts as other noun determiners, it cannot be simply treated as a particular case of this sequence: e.g. when the noun phrase is subject of a sentence: *Des voleurs ont emporté tout notre argent*. At the same time it is mutually exclusive with the class of determiners. On the other hand, the presence of this specifier excludes the use of a numeral; it is possible to say: *les deux hommes*, *ces deux hommes*, but not *des deux hommes*; *deux hommes* is the correct construction in this case. This latter example should indicate clearly that "indefiniteness" is part of the meaning of this specifier, which so stands in contrast with the various determiners. It might be considered to mark negative determination.

The four forms, the plural *des* and the three singular forms (*du*, etc.), are not absolutely parallel in their functions; *des* poses fewer problems, and it is perhaps best to treat it first. *Des*, a plural form necessarily accompanies plural substantives or noun phrases. Besides being "indefinite," it denotes an unspecified number (countable), more than one: *des amis*, *des livres*, *des boissons*, *des jours*, but not totality (*les livres*, *les boissons*) etc. As such, *des* may be taken as the plural, functionally speaking, of the count numeral *un*-*une*. When an adjective precedes the noun a variant form *de* is often employed instead of *des* especially in literary usage: *de bons amis*. *Des* may be taken to be a sort of minimum specification for plural nouns, expressing "plural" and "indefiniteness" in the absence of any other kind of specification.

In English, the closest counterpart to French *des* is the absence of specifier, or else the word *some* used with the substantive: *j'ai acheté des crayons* - *I bought (some) pencils*; *il est bon d'avoir des amis* - *It's good to have friends*. As already mentioned, this same English construction is also used to express totality, (i.e. generic use): *I like horses*, but in French, the basic determiner is used in this case: *j'aime les chevaux*.

The singular form *du* (*de la*, *de l'*) raises problems of a somewhat different order. As a singular form *du* contrasts with the numeral *un*, which signifies a unit. The use of *du* in phrases like *du mouton*, *de la soupe* indicates on the contrary that there is an unspecified quantity of the substance the noun refers to. This quantity is considered as an indivisible, thus uncountable, mass: *du mouton* - *un mouton*; *une soupe de la soupe*. At the same time, *du* marks that the quantity considered does not constitute a totality. For this latter meaning, with singular forms, French requires, as indicated, the use of *le* which thus also stands in opposition to *du*: *du mouton*/ *le mouton*, *de la soupe*/ *la soupe*. A very large number of French nouns may be considered either from a countable or an uncountable aspect: *je voudrais boire du café* - *je voudrais boire un café* (i.e. a cup of coffee); likewise, an unspecified quantity of the substance: *donnez-moi du pain* (bread) contrasts with *donnez-moi un pain* (a loaf of bread) (i.e. one [habitual] unit of bread), and with *donnez-moi le pain* (the bread in question). Also *du vin* (wine, some wine) - *un vin* (a glass of wine or else one of several different kinds of wine) - *le vin*.

Parallel to the basic determiner *le*, which may have a generic or specific reference, *du*, etc., may be used to indicate a part (i.e. non-totality) of a mass envisaged generically: *le pain* (total), *du pain* (part of this total); *je voudrais du pain*. Or else it may refer to a part of a specific determined mass, *je voudrais du pain que vous venez d'acheter*. In this latter case, other determiners besides *le* may follow *de*: *donne-moi de ton pain*. Only the first type constitutes truly a functional block. The same bipartition exists for *des*: *il raconte de ces histoires*.

In English, the concept expressed by French *du* corresponds in many cases to the use of the singular noun alone: *I'll have milk* - *je prendrai du lait*. *Do you want mustard?* - *voulez-vous de la moutard?* *Put butter on his bread* - *etalez du beurre sur son pain*. Here, *lait* and *beurre* are uncountables. It may usefully be recalled here that English does not make a formal grammatical distinction between the unaccompanied substantive as used in the sentence: *Put butter on his bread* and *Butter is good for you* (*Etalez du beurre sur son pain*, and *le beurre est nourrissant*). English speakers can often reduce ambiguity, if the context is not clear, through the use of the word *some* (or *any*) as a rendering for *du*: *some butter* - *du beurre*. In any case it must always be remembered that the difference between both meaning values expressed in English by the absence of a specifier before a substantive corresponds, in French, to a formal grammatical difference, rendered generally by *du* - *le*. On the other hand, English presents a grammatical opposition to mark the difference between definite and collective (generic). *The explosives are in the box* - *Explosives are dangerous*, whereas in French this difference has no formal expression, but derives from the context. The use of *du*, like *des*, is incompatible with the use of a following numeral within the noun phrase: more explicit quantification of such expression can only be expressed by quantifiers which precede the noun phrase, such as *beaucoup de soupe*, *une assiette de soupe*, etc.

The constructions with *du* have a rather wide range of use. For instance, *il mange du boeuf* means *he eats beef* (*meat*); *c'est du renard* - *it is fox* (*fur*); *c'est du Balzac* - *it is (a selection from) Balzac*; *il fait du cheval* - *he goes horseback riding*; *il fait du sport* - *he goes in for sport*, in which reference is to a part of whatever the substantive refers to, or at least whatever part is best known or most useful in the social collectivity, i.e., the fur of the fox, the writings of Balzac, etc.

It may also be noted that *du* occurs more rarely than the various other determiners when the noun phrase functions as the subject of the sentence. French speakers generally prefer to employ other means of indefinite enumeration.

2. *Nouns (Substantives and Adjectives)*

a) *Elements of the Noun*

The second major category of the noun phrase complementary to the category of specifiers, is made up of two types of elements: substantives and adjectives. These two classes are in many ways alike and their respective limits cannot be sharply drawn. They are both "open classes" (that is, classes to which new words may be added,as needed) and thus constitute the proper lexical part of the noun phrase. Insofar as substantives may be said to be inflected, this inflection is in most cases quite similar to that of adjectives. At the same time, there are words which function sometimes as adjectives sometimes as substantives. The main difference between substantives and adjectives is in their functions. The substantive is the core or nucleus of the noun phrase, whereas the adjective is an intimate but non-obligatory modifier. Unlike the specifiers, its presence or absence is a matter of lexical, not grammatical, choice. Substantives and adjectives differ as already mentioned in their behavior with respect to the gender feature. The substantive in French belongs obligatorily to one of two gender classes, whereas the adjective, a variable word, agrees in gender and number with the substantive it accompanies. Finally the adjective itself may often be modified by words which by themselves generally cannot directly modify substantives: *très grand*, but not *très livre*. The gender of a substantive, although an inherent part of its meaning, is not usually apparent from its form. There are, however, a few exceptions: certain substantive suffixes are regularly of a given gender. Substantives ending with the suffix /sjõ/, written -*tion*, -*sion*, are feminine. These ending with the suffixes -*age* and -*ment* are masculine, -*ure* endings are feminine. For instance: *information* (f), *parement* (m), *peinture* (f), *claquage* (m).

There are also a certain number of substantives which may at first sight appear to be variable words, like adjectives. A number of substantives denoting living beings often have two related forms one denoting the male and the other the female and have masculine and feminine gender respectively: *maître* - *maîtresse*; *marchand* - *marchande*; *prince* - *princesse*; *acteur* - *actrice*. A few variations are peculiar to the class of substantives: *héros* - *héroine*; *canard* - *cane*; *compagnon* - *compagne*; *vieillard* - *vieille*. Many other cases are the same as found in adjectives and will be indicated below. However, all such pairs of words are related lexically and not grammatically. One or the other word is chosen as a lexical item, an element of the vocabulary, and it is this element as a noun core, which imposes its gender upon the accompanying variable words.

1) gender variations

The study of the inflection of nouns (substantives and adjectives) must carefully distinguish between speech and writing. As the rules for the written forms of the language are the ones generally found in traditional text-books, special attention will be paid here to oral language.

The classification of adjectives and substantives according to their spoken form is made on the basis of formal characteristics. The first division that can be made is between those whose form is variable and those whose form remains invariable, in speech, for all genders and number (we do not consider here plural linking which takes place irrespective of the adjective used).

Invariable forms.

The number of invariable adjectives is greater than indicated in the written language. If the words like brave, honnête, utile, have a single oral form, and in their written form are always spelled identically for both genders (singular: brave, plural: braves), a great many other words having variable spellings are invariable in speech. Example: joli-jolie-jolis-jolies all pronounced /žǫli/; other words of this type are public(s) - publique(s); pur(s) - pure(s); supérieur(s) - supérieure(s).

Substantives designating living beings may present the same lack of formal distinctions between masculine and feminine: un enfant - une enfant, un artiste - une artiste.

Variable forms:

The variable adjectives may be of several types: A) adjectives whose feminine form is that of the masculine plus a final consonant. The masculine form of most such adjectives ends in a vowel, but a few also end in *-r*; B) adjectives with a different final consonant in the masculine and the feminine. (It must be kept in mind that the masculine singular liaison form for some adjectives is the same as the feminine form, but not for others.) C) adjectives whose feminine form uses a suffix.

A) The feminine form is that of a masculine plus a final consonant.

(i) The masculine form ends in a vowel: *muet*-*muette* /myę/-/myęt/, *dernier*-*dernière* /dernjẹ/-/dernjęr/, *frais*-*fraîche* /fręl/-/fręš/, *bas*-*basse* /ba/-/bas/, *gris*-*grise* /gri/-/griz/, *sot*-*sotte* /sǫ/-/sǫt/, *petit*-*petite* /pəti/-/pətit/, *grand*-*grande* /grã/-/grãd/, *doux*-*douce* /du/-/dus/, *blanc*-*blanche* /blã/-/blãš/, *long*-*longue* /lõ/-/lõg/, *fin*-*fine* /fẽ/-/fin/, *exquis*-*exquise* /ękski/-/ękskiz/, *certain*-*certaine* /sęrtẽ/-/sęrtęn/, etc. Some substantives showing this same kind of variation are: *marquis*-*marquise* /marki/-/markiz/, *lapin*-*lapine* /lapẽ/-/lapin/, *chat*-*chatte* /ša/-/šat/, *gueux*-*gueuse* /gø/-/gøz/, *chien*-*chienne* /šjẽ/-/šjęn/, etc.; *boulanger*-*boulangère* /bulãžẹ/-/bulãžęr/, *écolier*-*écolière* /ẹkǫljẹ/-/ẹkǫljęr/, *loup*-*louve* /lu/-/luv/, etc.

Sometimes a phonetically conditioned vowel alternation is present in addition to the morphological consonant alternation; this vowel alternation affects the mid vowels /ẹ/ - /ę/, /ọ/ - /ǫ/: *dernier*-*dernière* /dęrnjẹ/ -. /dęrnjęr/, *sot*-*sotte* /sọ/ - /sǫt/.

Adjectives whose masculine form ends in a nasal vowel are of two general types: 1) those whose feminine is formed by the simple addition of an oral consonant (most often /t/ or /d/) to the masculine form:

chantant /šãtã/ - *chantante* /šãtãt/ (all present participles); *blond* /blõ/ - *blonde* /blõd/, *blanc* /blã/ - *blanche* /blãš/. 2) Those whose feminine ends in a nasal consonant preceded by an oral vowel (the nasal vowel of the masculine form is replaced). This final consonant is generally /n/: *fin* - *fine*, *certain* - *certaine*, *bon* - *bonne*, *commun* - *commune*, *un* - *une*; substantives: *chien* - *chienne*, *copain* - *copine*, etc. For two adjectives: *bénin* - *bénigne*, *malin* - *maligne*, this final nasal consonant is /ñ/. The written forms of these various words given pertinent clues to the pronunciation of the oral vowel preceding the nasal consonant.

(ii) The masculine form ends in /r/ (words of this type are much less numerous than those of the preceding group): *vert* - *verte* /vęr/ - /vęrt/, *couvert* - *couverte* /kuvęr/ - /kuvęrt/, *divers* - *diverse* /divęr/ - /divęrs/, *pervers* - *perverse* /pęrvęr/ - /pęrvęrs/, etc.

The forms of these types may be further classified according to the masculine singular form used before a following word with an initial vowel and requiring linking (liaison). Some have the same form for the masculine and the feminine but others remain distinct in this position:

(a) examples with the same linking form: *petit(e)* /p(ə)tit/, in both *un petit enfant* - *une petite enfant*; *excellent(e)* /ękselãt/, in both *un excellent élève* and *une excellente affaire*; *certain(e)* /sęrtęn/, in both *un certain homme* and *une certaine femme*.

(b) examples with different linking forms: *doux*-*douce*, *bas*-*basse*, *faux*-*fausse* (/z/-/s/); *frais*-*fraîche* (/z/-/š/); *grand* presents a practically unique example of an adjective showing a distinct form for each one of the four possible gender-number combinations: masculine singular, *grand homme* /grãtǫm/, feminine singular, *grande âme* /grãdam/, masculine plural, *grands hommes* /grãzǫm/, feminine plural grandes âmes /grãdzam/. The spelling furnishes useful hints about the final consonants of masculine singular linking forms; often it is that of the consonant written; in other cases, the spelling d corresponds to /t/ and s, x, to /z/.

Some specialists recommend taking the feminine form as basic and consider the masculine to be formed by the dropping of the final consonant of that form. Others prefer taking the masculine form as basic. Both have their merits, but neither is practically nor theoretically perfect. The terms of each alternation must be learned mechanically. There do exist regularities in oral forms and many hints about pronounciation found in the written forms of such words can be useful, but there is no valid substitute for memorization.

(iii) To the types (i) and (ii) may be added a third group of adjectives some of which are in extremely common use. These are characterized in their oral form not only by an additional consonant present in the feminine form but also by a modification not motivated by the phonetic context of the vowel preceding this final consonant: /o/~/el/ beau-belle, nouveau-nouvelle; /u/~/ol/ fou-folle, mou-molle; /ø/~/ej/ vieux-vieille. The masculine singular linking form of these adjectives is identical with the feminine form but is written somewhat differently: bel, nouvel, fol, mol, vieil.

There are substantives which also have this alternation: chameau-chamelle, jumeau-jumelle.

B) Consonantal alternation. For this category of adjective, the variation of gender is marked by an alternation of the final consonant: /f/-/v/: bref-breve, neuf-neuve, sauf-sauve, craintif-craintive, fautif-fautive, massif-massive, vif-vive, naïf-naïve (substantives: veuf-veuve); /k/-/s/: sec-sèche; /r/-/z/: trompeur-trompeuse, menteur-menteuse, *chanteur*-*chanteuse*, *joueur*-*joueuse*.

C) Suffixation. This procedure of suffixation is in many ways more characteristic of substantives than of adjectives. Many words of this type occur both as substantives and as adjectives. The limit between adjective gender inflection and substantive derivation is in these cases hard to draw. Suffixation is of two types: a) presence or absence of the suffix; b) alternation of suffixes. Examples of a) are: *hôte*-*hôtesse*; *maître*-*maîtresse*; *prince*-*princesse*; *duc*-*duchesse*; *héros*-*héroïne*; *Henri*-*Henriette*, the feminine being formed in each case by adjunction of a suffix to the masculine form. There are a few pairs of substantives where the shorter form is the feminine: *cane*-*canard*; *compagne*-*compagnon*; *dinde*-*dindon*; *mule*-*mulet*. Examples of b) are: *-eur-oresse*(*-eresse*): *docteur*-*doctoresse*; *enchanteur*-*enchanteresse*; *-eur* - *-rice*: *auditeur*-*auditrice*; *constructeur*-*constructrice*; *acteur*-*actrice*; *accusateur*-*accusatrice*, etc.

Finally there are some adjectives and substantives which defy systematic classification; e.g. *hébreu*-*hébraïque*, *serviteur*-*servante*.

2) *number variations*

Besides the inflection for gender, adjectives and substantives may also show inflection for number. Here too the difference between oral and written language must be maintained. In writing, plural markers abound which have no counterpart in the oral language, to such an extent that they create spelling problems for the English-speaking learner, who is not in the habit of placing plural markers on specifiers and adjectives in English. *The big boy*, *the big boys* - *le grand garçon*, *les grands garçons*. In addition, he must remember to place such markers (-s or -x) even though in most cases they are only for the eye. As the spelling rules for the agreement in number are well-known, we shall concentrate here upon oral speech.

The formal expression of the number feature is rather marginal; it is assured by the specifiers or various other elements rather than the particular form of the substantive or the adjective. The occurrence of a plural liaison form is at most only an accidental and intermittent marker of plurality: *leurs belles idées* /bęlzidẹ/. Few substantives and adjectives have different forms for the singular and the plural. When such formal features occur, the features of number and those of gender are generally fused together within the framework of a unique formal distinguishing mark. Only one alternation marking the distinction singular/plural has relative frequency; this is the alternance -*al* /al/ - -*aux* /ọ/, which is represented in both substantive and adjective classes: *général*-*généraux*, *fédéral*-*fédéraux*, *fluvial*-*fluviaux*, *journal*-*journaux*, *cheval*-*chevaux*, etc., but not all words in -*al* have their plural in -*aux* /ọ/; among this latter type may be mentioned: *bal*, *récital*, *festival*, *carnaval*, *régal*, *choral*, plural: *bals*, *récitals*, etc. In the adjective, the form -*aux* /ọ/ simultaneously marks two features: masculine gender and plural number. *Généraux* contrasts with the masculine singular *général* and with the feminine plural *générales* (both /žẹnẹral/).

About ten substantives whose singular form ends in *ail* /aj/ have a plural form /ọ/: *bail*-*baux*, *émail*-*émaux*, *travail*-*travaux*, *corail*-*coraux*, *vitrail*-*vitraux*, etc. (but *détail*-*détails*).

Besides these, there are a few very common words which have a plural form distinct from the singular: *oeuf* /øf/ - *oeufs* /ø/, *boeuf* /bøf/ - *boeufs* /bø/, *os* /ǫs/ - *os* (plural) /ọ/, *oeil* /øj/ - *yeux* /jø/, *ciel* /sjęl/ - *cieux* /sjø/, *aïeul* /ajøl/ - *aïeux* /ajø/.

b) Adjective Modifiers

The simple adjective may often be expanded by a modifying word or expression: *très*, *plus*, *peu*, *moins*, *assez*, *aussi*, *bien*, *tellement*, *tout à fait*, *extrêmement*, etc. These words generally precede the adjective, and are classed in most grammar books as adverbs. It is useful to note here that what is referred to traditionally as the degrees of the adjectives (cf. English: *big*-*bigger*-*biggest*) is in French a syntactic combination, except in very few cases. Most usually it is a construction with *plus* which is presented in grammar books: *grand* - *plus grand* - *le plus grand*. But, in French, there is no reason to separate the construction with *plus* from one with *moins* (cf. *less* or *not as big*): *moins grand*, *le moins grand*, or eventually with the other adjective-modifying words listed above (cf. English *more useful*, *most useful*, *less useful*, etc.). The difference between the second and third forms of each series ("comparative" and "superlative") is rather one between absence of a determiner (i.e. "indefinite") (*plus grand*) and presence of a determiner (i.e. "definite") (*le plus grand*) for these otherwise do not stand apart like the elements of the morphological pattern of English: *bigger*-*biggest*. It is also possible to say in French: *des plus grands* (*among the biggest*): *une lecture des plus agréables* (a kind of partitive construction). Three words do not conform to the pattern given: 1) *bon*-*meilleur*-*le meilleur*; *fleurs bon marché*, *meilleur marché*; this is quite obligatory: *plus bon*, for all practical purposes, does not exist; 2) *mauvais*-*pire*-*le pire*; but *plus mauvais*, *le plus mauvais* are more usual except in the literary language, and in some set expressions: *les pires ennuis*; *le pire des maux*; 3) *petit*-*moindre*-*le moindre* likewise is more literary; *plus petit*, *le plus petit* being by far more general in speech.

The comparative forms are often followed by a second element, a complement of the "comparative" construction. This term is ordinarily introduced by the word *que*: *Il est plus grand que son frère*, *il est moins bête que vous ne pensez*. The English speaker must be careful not to use *comme*, the usual translation of *as*: *He is not as dumb as you think*. The "superlative" forms may also be followed by a complement introduced by *de*: *le plus grand de nos écrivains*, a type of partitive construction. It may also combine with quantifying complements: *il est de beaucoup (de loin) le plus grand*.

c) *adjective agreement*

Most usually the problem is a simple one. The adjective agrees in gender and number with the noun it modifiers. However, it is possible for one adjective to refer to two or more substantives joined in the noun phrase. If these are all of the same gender, the adjective agreement is with the gender. If they are *not* all of the same gender, it is the masculine plural form of the adjective that is used, the masculine gender being in French the basic gender and the one that appears as the agreement form: *une tête et un corps inhumains*. Stylistically, it is desirable (but not obligatory in this case) that the masculine noun be placed closest to the adjective particularly when this latter element varies in gender. There are other types of problems which arise with respect to agreement at least in the literary written language: *les codes civil et pénal* (one of each); *une voiture et un appartement neuf* (the apartment alone is new).

d) *adjective position*

The adjective is generally placed continguous to the substantive, but may either precede or follow the noun core. The position following the noun core is certainly much more usual; it is the place occupied not only by the vast majority of adjectives, but also by most words or phrases other than specifiers which modify the substantive or the noun phrase: *un homme intelligent*; *la bombe atomique*; *chambre dix*; *la siège avant*; *un coup raté*; *un livre de physique*; *la maison de mon ami*. However, the ordinal numbers which functionally belong to the adjective class regularly precede the substantive they modify (*deuxième étage*, etc.). There are also a small number of adjectives, many of which are in very frequent use and which very often occur before the substantive they modify: *beau*, *grand*, *jeune*, *sale*, *pauvre*, *petit*, *vieux*, *bon*, are of this type. Sometimes a difference of position of such adjectives corresponds to a difference of meaning: e.g. *un homme pauvre* has no money, but *un pauvre homme* stirs pity (he may be rich). But quite often however there is no clearcut significant difference. It may also be remarked that when *beau*, *petit*, *vieux*, etc. are themselves modified, they more normally appear after the substantive: *une belle fille*, *une très belle fille*, but more usually, *une fille extrêmement belle*; and adjective followed by a complement is placed after the substantive it modifies: *une fille grande de taille*.

The position of the adjective is sometimes a question of style: the respective lengths of the adjective and the substantive are often considered to play a rôle, the shorter element appearing first. It has been suggested that the position of the adjective also seems often to be correlated to a difference of intent. When it precedes the substantive, the quality it denotes generally is felt to be intimately bound to the meaning expressed by the substantive and often has definite affectionate connotations. When the adjective follows, the quality denoted by the adjective often has more neutral connotations, and marks simply a quality attributed to whatever is designated by the substantive.

Constructions like *une belle robe jaune*, *une bonne méthode linguistique*, with one adjective preceding and another following are frequent. Two or more adjectives may be placed after the substantive. The last one may modify the noun group (i.e. substantive + adjective) preceding it: *(un) avenir économique prometteur*, or they may stand on the same level but this is as a rule indicated by some coordinate conjunction placed between the two adjectives, or by the presence of commas in writing: *un cri long et aigu*.

When the substantive is followed by a substantive or noun phrase complement forming an inseparable group with it, it may not be quite clear which is modified by the adjective: *un marchand de drap noir*. The meaning of the phrase usually suffices to make matters clear, but recourse to pause (*un marchand de drap*...*noir* vs. *un marchand*...*de drap noir*) is less natural in French than recourse to different stressing would be in English. In the written medium, spelling may often be an aid: *nos espoirs de jeunesse disparus*; *une classe de mots invariables*.

e) *special noun constructions*

Apart from the above considerations, there still remains the question of the negative substantives, *personne* and *rien*; to these may be added the negative specifiers which may on occasion serve as core of the noun phrase. When these words are present, the verb of the sentence or clause in which they occur is preceded by the negative particle *ne*: *personne ne me parle*; *je ne vois rien*; *aucun n'a réussi*.

Besides words which belong to the class of adjectives, words of other classes may sometimes be used as substantive modifiers and like adjectives be simply juxtaposed to the substantive. Note the phrases with cardinal numbers like: *le numéro trois*; *la chambre treize*; and groups that may often be assimilated with compound words: *foule monstre*, *mot clé*, *roue arrière*. Such substantive modifiers are generally invariable.

In commercial language this kind of construction occurs very frequently: *un tissu grand teint* (fast color); *un pantalon tergal* (a synthetic fabric). Substantive modifiers of this kind generally follow the substantive. In constructions imitated from English models, the modifier is often placed before the substantive: *Paris-Université-Club*, the name of a well-known Parisian athletic club.

Verbal forms with adjectival functions (i.e. occuring as substantive modifiers) and particularly the form traditionally called the past participle, are juxtaposed to and usually follow the substantive. In many cases, these forms behave functionally like adjectives and show many of the formal characteristics of these: *un homme râté*; *un enfant gâté par ses parents*; *une chambre meublée*. The present participle is the other verbal form that may have adjectival functions occurs: *le cheval gagnant*; *un film choquant*; *une mélodie envoûtante*; *une étonnante vitalité*. There are parallels for these constructions in English, but with the modifying word placed before the substantive modified, as is usual in English: *a spoiled child*; *the winning horse*. However, when such a substantive modifier is a phrase, it follows the noun: *the child spoiled by his parents*; *the horse winning the race*.

The noun phrase may be expanded in other ways than by juxtaposition. The noun phrase modifiers or complements may be joined to a simple noun phrase by means of some kind of particle: preposition, or conjunction; such modifiers regularly follow the noun phrase they are dependent upon: *le chapeau de ma femme*; *l'homme que j'ai vu*, etc. However, there is one important kind of relationship in which it may often be considered that the noun phrase is *preceded* by a word or expression which quantifies it.

f) *quantifiers*

One type of quantification has already been dealt with in the paragraphs devoted to the numeral specifiers. These indicate the number of units of whatever the noun phrase core refers to. There exists another type of quantification which is not incorporated into the noun phrase proper, but which is placed before the noun phrase and attached to it generally by means of a preposition *de*: *beaucoup d'amis*; *une centaine de livres*; *dix sacs de riz*; etc.

The quantifiers are of several different types. Firstly, there are words many of which have as their most frequent if not sole function to quantify; their meaning implies the notion of quantity. Among these may be grouped such words as *beaucoup (de)*, *peu (de)*, *assez (de)*, *tant (de)*, *autant (de)*, *plus (de)*, *pas mal (de)*, *moins (de)*, *trop (de)*, *combien (de)*, *quantité (de)*, *nombre (de)*, *suffisamment (de)*, etc. Most of these words are generally classed among the adverbs in traditional French grammar, but as noun phrase quantifiers they hardly conform to any kind of traditional definition of the adverb: *il a acheté assez de riz*, *je n'ai jamais vu tant de monde*, *combien d'argent avez-vous?* *trop de mes élèves sont paresseux*. To these may be added *bien* and *encore* which may also serve as quantifiers.

A number of nominal expressions having "quantity" implied in their meaning frequently serve as quantifiers: *la plupart (de)*; *un bon nombre (de)*; *une masse (de)*; *une centaine (de)* (and a number of familiar or expressive quantifiers; *des floppées de gosses*; *des myriades d'étoiles*; *une ribambelle d'enfants*; *une kyrielle de plaintes*, etc.); also various measure words, combining usually with a numeral specifier: *deux kilos de viande*; *cinq litres de vin*; *une gorgée de thé*; some of these are only occasionally employed as quantifiers: *un bol de (riz)*; *dix sacs de (pommes de terre)*; *un doigt de (whiskey)*; *le gros des (effectifs)*, *la plus grande partie des (maisons)*. From the point of view of syntactic function, it is necessary to separate constructions of the type: *cinq litres de vin*; *un bol de riz*; *deux sacs de pommes de terre*, etc., in which the subject-verb agreement indicates that *un bol*, *deux sacs*, etc. are regularly the core of the phrase: *deux sacs de riz ont été chargés dans la voiture*, the verb form *ont* here agreeing with *deux sacs*, from constructions of the type where the noun phrase following the quantifier constitutes the core: *la plupart de mes amis sont partis*, the verb *sont* agreeing with *mes amis*. In this latter type, the behavior of the quantifier is quite parallel to that of *beaucoup*, *assez*, etc. The type: *un bol de riz* on the other hand is not different, syntactically, from a noun phrase followed by a complement introduced by *de*. Some quantifying expressions are used in both ways: *une foule de malades a accouru* - *une foule de malades ont accouru*; the difference is one of point of view. In the first case the emphasis is on the collective idea *foule* and in the second upon the units represented by *malades*.

These constructions serve to express several different kinds of notion. First, they may quantify the noun phrase when whatever the noun core refers to is taken in the sense of something not decomposable into count units: *du lait* - *un litre de lait* - *une tasse de lait*; *du charbon* - *une pelletée de charbon* - *beaucoup de charbon*. In this sense, it generally adds a certain precision quantitatively speaking, to what is expressed in *du lait*, *du charbon*, and often furnishes some kind of countable unit, *litre*, *pelletée*, etc. It is thus not surprising to find the use of this type of quantifying is generally complementary to quantifying by means of numeral specifiers.

Quantifying words may also be used with substantives considered as countable units. Here they generally furnish some kind of numerical or quantitative precision to the specifier *des* which indicates simply *more than one*: *des généraux* - *beaucoup de généraux*; *des oeufs* - *assez d'oeufs* /asedø/; *des boeufs gras* - *beaucoup de boeufs gras* /bø/, etc.

When the noun phrase quantified is "indefinite" it is the particle *de* that serves to link the quantifier to the noun phrase and to introduce this latter term (see preceding paragraph).

Many of the quantifying words discussed may also precede a noun phrase introduced by a determiner: *le*, *ce*, etc. In this case, the construction generally has a partitive meaning: i.e. part of the totality of whatever the noun phrase refers to. The numeral specifiers are frequently used in this way: *deux de mes amis*; *plusieurs de mes amis*; *certains des élèves*; *quelques-uns des livres*; *chacune de ces femmes*; *aucun de nos candidats*, as are many other quantifiers: *beaucoup de mes amis*; *pas mal de mes élèves*; *une grande partie de notre argent*; *la plupart du temps*; *la plupart des citoyens*. With *bien* and *encore* used as quantifiers, the following noun phrase is regularly preceded by *de* plus determiner, generally *le*: (*il se donne*) *bien du mal*; *encore du monde*. As can be seen from these examples the limits between partitive and quantitative notions cannot be sharply marked; they often receive similar formal grammatical expression; "partitive" meaning occurs generally when the noun phrase is introduced by a determiner.

The quantifiers may serve as substitutes for the entire expression: quantifier - noun phrase: *j'ai beaucoup de livres* - *j'en ai beaucoup*; *beaucoup d'élèves ne réussissent pas* - *beaucoup ne réussissent pas*; *j'ai acheté des oeufs dont la plupart sont abîmés*. When a quantifying word alone is employed as subject, the verb always stands in the third person; *beaucoup d'entre vous sont fatigués*; when it stands alone as a direct object, the pronoun *en* is agglutinated to the verb form.

The quantifying procedures just described form a functional whole. However, in most French grammar books, this is usually broken up; expressions like *un grand nombre de* being dealt with in the study of nouns;

beaucoup, assez, etc. in the study of adverbs; and chacun, quelques-uns, etc. among the pronouns, categories into which these various kinds of words are traditionally classed, but such a division tends to hide the common quantifying characteristics they share.

The English quantifying system bears a certain similarity to the French system; cf. partitive expressions like beaucoup de mes amis - many of my friends; une grande quantité d'exemples - a great quantity of examples. But in other cases and particularly when the determination is properly quantifying rather than partitive, English uses words joined to the noun by juxtaposition: few books - peu de livres; many boys - beaucoup de garçons; enough milk - assez de lait, whereas their French counterparts require the use of de after the quantifier.

There is one quantifying word which is not linked to the following noun phrase by the particle de; this is the word tout which has "totality" as its meaning. This word is normally juxtaposed to the noun phrase: tout le monde, tous les hommes, toutes les femmes, and agrees in gender and number with the following noun.

D. Expansion of the Noun Phrase

Noun phrases may be built up not only by means of juxtaposed elements, with the feature of agreement usually -- but not always -- present. As in English, a subordinated word or phrase may be joined to the noun or noun phrase by means of a particle, traditionally called a preposition. When the subordinate term is a clause, it is a relative word which is employed to mark the subordination.

1. Prepositional Subordination

When two nouns or noun phrases stand in a relation of subordination one to the other, their relation is normally indicated by means of a preposition - *de*, *à*, *pour*, *en*,*sur*, *par*, etc., the subordinate term generally following. Constructions of this type are numerous and varied: *le fils de mon voisin*; *la maison de mon père*; *les joies du plein air*; *le départ du ministre*; *le don de ses biens*; *la ville de Paris*; *un séjour en Amérique*; *un homme de grande valeur*; *la salle de séjour*; *un accident d'auto*; *un voyage en avion*; *un travail d'érudition*.

Actually, the terms so joined enjoy varying degrees of independence, syntactically speaking. The tie between the two terms may be relatively lax; at one extreme, may be placed constructions which from the standpoint of their form may be considered to be two complete noun phrases joined to each other by a preposition; each noun phrase having its independence with respect to the features of gender, number and specification, and with respect to the modifying words which may be joined to each of the two elements of such constructions: *le fils de mon voisin*; *le fils de mes voisins*; *les fils de mon voisin*; *le fils aîné de mon voisin de palier*; *un fils de notre voisin*, etc. This freedom is typical of "possessive" expressions in French.

At the other end of the scale, belong those constructions whose elements form an inseparable block and cannot be separated; modifying words qualify the entire construction never a part of it. This type constitutes the French equivalent of compound words: e.g. *chambre à coucher* (bedroom); *chemin de fer* (railroad); *descente de lit* (bedside rug); *homme d'affaires* (businessman); *homme à femmes* (ladies' man); *moulin à café* (coffee grinder), etc.

Between these two extremes there exist intermediate degrees of mutual independence in which one or more of the features characterizing the independent noun phrase may be absent. For instance, there are constructions in which each of the two elements may take adjective modifiers but the second element -- the subordinate element -- is not preceded by a specifier: *une montre en or* - *une montre automatique en or fin et une autre en acier inoxydable*; *un mur de béton* - *des murs solides de béton et de briques*; *un fruit à noyau* - *une pêche à gros noyau* - *une belle pêche jaune à gros noyau*. In other constructions of this same general type only one of the two terms may be able to receive a modifying word: *allocation de base* - *allocation journalière de base*. The dividing line between various types is not at all easy to trace for there is a certain overlapping. When both elements of the construction of the first type under discussion have indefinite specification, the second element is not preceded by a specifier, thus *un fils d'instituteur*; that element may be taken to be completely unspecified, i.e. with respect to determination and number. This construction formally resembles constructions classed as intermediate e.g. *un mur de béton*. Likewise *fruit à noyau* taken by itself is parallel to *moulin à café*.

In French, form alone often cannot serve to furnish clearcut limits between grammatical constructions and compound words, for compound words are not always composed in a manner outwardly different from that of grammatical constructions. It is usually necessary to introduce criteria based upon syntactic behavior such as: 1) the separability or non-separability of the elements; 2) the possibility of adding modifying words to one of the elements by coordination or subordination.

In French, constructions with a preposition of the above types are of high frequency compared to constructions in which two nouns or noun phrases are linked in a relation of subordination by simple juxtaposition. In English, on the contrary, it is usual to find, corresponding to such French constructions, constructions formed by juxtaposition — the subordinate term preceding: *my neighbor's son*; *a stone wall* (*un mur de pierre*); *a physics book* (*un livre de physique*); *the blackbearded man* (*l'homme à la barbe noire*). However, in English as in French it is often possible to use constructions with a preposition: *the son of my neighbor*, *a wall of stone*, *the man with a black beard*. Also, in English, stress may serve to differentiate two constructions by juxtaposition that would otherwise be identical: *A French professor* (of French nationality - *un professeur français*) and: *a French professor* (who teaches French - *un professeur de français*). This kind of stress distinction does not occur in French.

If the most frequently occurring prepositions appearing in such constructions (patterns) are *de* and *à*, other prepositions occur as well: *en*, *pour*, *sur*, *sans*, etc.: *un élément de grande valeur*; *la dame au petit chien*; *une montre en or*; *l'homme sur le banc*; *un homme sans scruples*; *un colloque sur la linguistique*. Besides nouns, words belonging to other classes may be joined to the noun in this way; and particularly, infinitives (i.e. the verb form generally having the syntactic functions of nouns and noun phrases) and adverbs: *la note à payer*; *le désir de plaire*; *un appareil à enregistrer*; *une histoire pour rire*; adverbs: *les costumes d'autrefois*; *la science de demain*.

In such subordinate patterns where the subordinate term is introduced by a preposition, the preposition marks not only the subordinate relationship but in many cases also contains information about the semantic relationship existing between the terms of the construction. Sometimes, the replacement of one preposition by another may suffice to differentiate two expressions: *un verre de vin* (*a glass of wine*) - *un verre à vin* (*a wine glass*); *un bidon d'huile* (*a can of oil*) - *un bidon* *à huile* (*an oil can*); *une bouteille de lait* (*a bottle of milk*) - *une bouteille à lait* (*a milk bottle*) etc. A sign, hung prominently in a Paris Latin Quarter store specializing in the sale of children's clothing, reading: *spécialités d'enfants* (i.e. [*our*] *specialty is children*) instead of *spécialitiés pour enfants* (*children's specialities*) almost invariably provoked laughter when encountered for the first time. As these various examples indicate, English has a syntactic pattern comparable to that usual in French, noun phrase - preposition - noun phrase, but does not make as extensive use of it, as French does, In many cases English opposes a juxtapositional pattern to a prepositional one, where French shows only an opposition between two prepositions. Learning the right preposition is one of the beginning student's first problems.

Brief mention may also be made of another kind of nominal construction frequent in expressive forms of speech: *un diable d'enfant*; *un drôle de garçon*; *un bougre d'homme*; *un bijou de femme*, in which it is not easy to determine grammatically which term is subordinate to the other. From the standpoint of meaning the first term intensifies the second, but, formally, most such expressions conform to the pattern described above. However, it may be noted that in some cases the specifier introducing the construction agrees with the noun following the preposition: *un drôle de garçon*, but *une drôle de vie*, particularly when the first term may be of either gender. We have even found in print *cette nom de Dieu de princesse*. This, of course, is quite parallel to English: *a peach of a girl*; *this fool of a doctor*.

2. *Relative Clauses*

A noun phrase may also be modified by a clause, that is a verbal phrase containing a personal, inflected verb form. Such phrases are called relative clauses in most grammar books. They are characterized by the presence of a relative word (or, better, relative particle) which marks the fact that a verbal phrase is being employed in a noun-modifying, subordinate function. At the same time the relative word marks the syntactic role (i.e. subject, object, etc.) which the modified noun — called the antecedent — assumes in the relative clause. In French, a relative clause may generally accompnay only a *specified noun*.

a) *forms*

French and English relative words present many points of similarity which tend to conceal certain important differences in their respective use and functioning in context. In English, a major line of cleavage exists between relative words whose antecedent has human reference (*who*, *whom*) and the relative word having non-human reference (*which*). A fourth form (*that*) exists which serves both human and non-human reference, but only in certain contexts. The possessive relative word *whose* can be used for both: *the man whose home*... - *the house whose roof leaks*. In French the distinction between human and non-human in the choice of the relative word is not without importance, but, in most cases, the choice of a given relative word in French is generally predictable form the grammatical context in which it occurs.

Functions not marked by a preposition:

1) subject: *qui*
2) direct object: *que*

Functions indicated by a preposition:

1) all prepositions except *de*: *à qui*, *par qui*, etc. (restricted to humans); *auquel*, *à laquelle*, *auxquelles*, *par lequel*, etc. (not restricted to humans).
2) preposition *de*: the same types (*de qui*, *duquel*, *de laquelle*, etc.)

plus dont (human or non-human).

Relative words in French may be classified into two general types: those that vary in gender and number and those that do not.

1) forms invariable in gender and number

This group is made up of a number of variant forms, the use of each of which depends essentially on the function which the relative word has in the relative clause. In most cases, in a given context, only one of the forms is possible, the other being excluded (linguists call this complementary distribution), and in a few cases there are two possibilities without any appreciable difference in meaning.

Qui is the form used when the syntactic role of the noun modified by the clause — the antecedent — is that of subject of the clause: l'homme qui est malade (i.e., l'homme est malade), les plantes qui poussent (les plantes poussent). (See also below: preposition + qui).

Que is the direct object form: l'homme que j'ai vu (j'ai vu l'homme); le livre que j'ai lu (j'ai lu le livre); la décision que j'ai prise (j'ai pris une décision); according to the grammatical rules established for the literary language, when the verbal form employed in a relative clause introduced by que is a compound form — avoir + past participle — the past participle agrees in gender and number with the antecedent. In other than written and careful spoken French this agreement is not always observed.

It may be noted that the reference to persons, part of the meaning of who, is not part of the meaning of the form qui which, when it has subject function, may refer to either persons or things. Likewise que may refer to antecedents representing either persons or things, and may thus correspond to whom, that. In French, a sentence such as:

apporte-moi la robe de ta soeur, qui est à la maison, is in itself ambiguous. Is the antecedent of the clause *la robe* or *ta soeur*? If such sentences pass in spoken language, they are frowned upon in written style. In English, the choice of the relative word would suffice to dissipate any ambiguity: *which* if the antecedent is *dress* and *who* if the antecedent is *sister*.

The syntactic role of the relative word within its clause may be other than that of subject or direct object. When the relative word would theoretically be preceded by *de* (except where *de* is a component of the partitive determiner), the form used is *dont*: *les nouvelles théories dont on parle*, (*on parle de ces nouvelles théories*); *l'enfant dont il est le tuteur*, (*il est le tuteur de l'enfant*); *les livres dont je me sers*, (*je me sers de ces livres*); *les cerises dont il a mangé la moitié*, (*il a mangé la moitié des cerises*). The use of *dont* as the relative word coincides with the presence of *de* in the untransposed sentences (in parentheses) before the noun phrase which is its antecedent. It is therefore the relative word which serves to express the "possessive" relationship, since the latter is always expressed by *de*; compare: *The man whose son brought the newspaper*, (*the man's son*...); *l'homme dont le fils a apporté le journal* (*le fils de l'homme*...). In certain contexts, however, *whose* corresponds to the French *duquel*, *de laquelle*, etc.

Où is the relative word used to mark an adverbial function expressing situation in space (*place where*, *place to which*) or time (*when*); *la maison où j'habite*, (*j'habite dans cette maison*); *le jour où je me suis cassé la jambe*. *Où* may be preceded by a preposition such as *de*, *par*, *jusque*: *l'endroit d'où il vient*. (Note that *from which* is *d'où* not *dont*.) *Où* may sometimes be replaced — particularly for spatial relations — by a relative word variable in gender and number preceded by a preposition without any significant change in meaning: la maison où j'habite, la maison dans laquelle j'habite.

Following a preposition, the simple invariable forms which may appear are qui and quoi. In this context, qui accompanies antecedents having human reference: l'homme à qui j'ai parlé; les personnes sur qui j'ai compté; and also de qui: l'homme de qui je tiens ces renseignements. Quoi has specific non-human reference, but its use is limited to antecedents which are not substantives (i.e. not presenting the features of gender and number), such as clauses, infinitives, or marks the absence of an antecedent: Ce à quoi je tiens, c'est le droit d'agir librement; dormir suffisamment, c'est sur quoi se fonde une bonne santé; il m'a parlé méchamment, ce à quoi je ne m'attendais pas. After ce, the relation de + relative is expressed by dont: ce dont il parle nous intéresse. When the antecedent is a substantive having non-human reference, it is a form of the variable relative lequel, lesquels, etc. that is used after a preposition.

2) variable forms

Besides the invariable relative words, there exist relative words which are variable in gender and in number; they agree, with respect to these features, with the substantive which is their antecedent. The masculine singular form is lequel; the distinctive variable forms are constituted by the variations of the first element which is identical with the basic determiner le, and the second element which is identical with the interrogative adjective quel: lequel, lesquels, laquelle, lesquelles; when de precedes: duquel, desquels, de laquelle, desquelles; when à precedes: auquel, auxquels, à laquelle, auxquelles.

These forms, of less frequent occurrence than the invariable relative words, are employed in the following contexts.

(a) When the relative word (*que* and *qui*) cannot be placed immediately after its antecedent for reasons dependent upon the grammatical structure of French sentences and clauses, the gender and number references help avoid ambiguity: *on a retrouvé la bicyclette de mon fils, laquelle a été volée*; *qui* could refer to either *bicyclette* or *fils*. It should be noted that French speakers generally are more sensitive than English speakers to such ambiguity.

(b) After a preposition other than *de*, when the substantive antecedent is non-human, the use of the variable relative word is compulsory: *la carrière à laquelle il s'est destiné*, *il s'est destiné à cette carrière*; *le repos après lequel il aspire*, *il aspire après le repos*. When the antecedent is human, it is possible to employ either this same construction or else use *qui* preceded by a preposition; this latter construction being the more usual: *l'homme auquel j'ai donné le paquet*, *l'homme à qui j'ai donné le paquet*, *j'ai donné le paquet à cet homme*. When the antecedent has such human reference, *de qui* may occur optionally in place of *dont*: *l'homme de qui j'ai parlé*, or *dont j'ai parlé*.

(c) The relative form *dont* is not used when the substantive with which it has a relation of subordination is itself preceded by a preposition within the relative construction. *Dont* is replaced here by *de qui* when the antecedent has human reference or by *duquel*, *de laquelle*, *desquels*, etc., whatever the reference of the antecedent. *L'homme dans la villa de qui* (or *duquel*) *nous nous sommes réunis*; cf. the untransposed sentence: *nous nous sommes réunis dans la villa de cet homme*; but, *cet homme dont la villa a servi de lieu de réunion*; untransposed: *la villa de cet homme a servi de lieu de réunion*, here *la villa*, the core to which *de cet homme* is attached, is not preceded by a preposition.

(d) Comments. In French the relative words are never omitted as they may be in English: The man I saw - l'homme que j'ai vu. When the functions of a relative word in French require the use of a preposition, or prepositional expression, these always precede the relative word: the French pattern is parallel to the English pattern the man to whom I gave the book and never that of the man I gave the book to.

The invariable relative words are related semantically and formally to the interrogative words, and the relative que to the conjunction que.

When the relative word has the functions of attribute or direct object, the subject of the relative clause is often placed after the verb when this subject is a noun phrase: le travail que fait votre ami. This inversion occurs most particularly when the verb form is shorter than the subject phrase. However, when the relative clause also contains a direct or indirect object, the subject is not inverted: le livre que votre ami a donné à mon frère. In many cases, the choice of subject position is optional: le travail qu'a fait votre ami, le travail que votre ami a fait; le travail que fait depuis ce matin votre ami, le travail que votre ami fait depuis ce matin, le travail que fait votre ami depuis ce matin. This question is one of style rather then grammar, but is not negligible for constructing sentences that are socially valid. This inversion is foreign to English, where the relative words do not clearly mark the difference between subject and object, as in French.

The problem of the verbal forms used in relative clauses will be treated in the chapter on the French verb system.

b) apposition

Many kinds of noun modifying words may qualify nouns or noun phrases without constituting a part of the noun phrase modified, that is, without being incorporated into the body of the noun phrase. One frequent construction of this general type is termed *apposition*. The modifying word or phrase is often (but not necessarily) detached from the noun phrase it qualifies: this is indicated in writing by the use of commas, and in speech by pauses. The same type of construction is common to both English and French.

A noun or noun phrase may stand in apposition to another noun phrase: *M. X., maire du village*; *Pascal, à la fois philosophe et savant*; *Jupiter, roi des dieux*. In such constructions, the appositional noun or nouns may occur without any sort of obligatory specifier.

An adjective (or adjectival phrase) may stand in apposition to a noun phrase: *les enfants, attentifs, écoutent le professeur*; *concentré ou étendu, le cyanure de potassium est très dangereux*. A relative clause may be, likewise, so detached; *cet homme, qui passe sa journée au travail, ignore les joies du plein air*. Likewise, an infinitive, a clause, or a pronoun may be used in this way: *Il a demandé une faveur, pouvoir fumer une dernière cigarette*; *Une seule crainte, que son travail ne soit pas accepté, le ronge*. (Also without pauses: *la crainte que son travail ne soit pas accepté*.) Appositions often may be detached and underlined by the use of *c'est-à-dire*, *à savoir*, introducing them.

Nouns and adjectives, noun phrases and adjective phrases used in apposition generally may either precede or follow the noun phrase to which they are attached. Thus, in the above examples, it is equally possible to say: *le maire du village, M. X.*; *attentifs, les élèves écoutent le professeur*, etc. For infinitives and clauses this inversion is not possible. When the apposition is variable in gender, the rules of agreement apply. A noun or adjective in apposition refers to the noun phrase it is closest to. When the apposition is sentence initial, it refers to the subject of the sentence. It is correct to say: *Roulant à 150 à l'heure, il n'a pas pu freiner à temps*, but not: *Roulant à 150 à l'heure, les poteaux semblent défiler à une allure vertigineuse* (i.e., *quand on roule à 150*...). French speakers, especially educated ones, are usually very sensitive to the nonsense sentences that may be formed in this way.

A word, subordinate to a noun phrase and standing outside it, may be linked to the noun phrase by a predicate relationship. When the noun phrase is the subject of a clause or sentence the linking element is a verbal form. Adjectives and nouns occur most frequently in such constructions, but even adverbs and adverbial phrases, infinitives, etc. may be used. In fact, most of the noun-modifying constructions may also occur in predicate constructions insofar as the modifier and the noun modified do not together form an inseparable unit (i.e. a compound word: *chemin de fer*). *Il est intelligent*; *les élèves sont attentifs*; *il est étudiant*; *M. X. est un ami d'enfance*; *cet homme est sans vergogne*; *ce travail est de grande valeur*; *mon désir est de retourner à la maison*; *mon principe est qu'il faut travailler avec régularité et méthode*. For words variable in gender and number the rules of agreement apply. Predicative constructions, which cannot be separated in reality from the vaster study of the sentence in French, occur mostly with a small number of verbs the most frequent of which is the verb *être*; other verbs: *avoir l'air*, *paraître*, *demeurer*, *sembler*, *rester*, *devenir*, *se montrer*, *se sentir*, *se révéler* and a number of other verbs used as reflexives (cf. *elle se sent mourante*, but: *la rose sent bon*, *bon* remaining invariable). These may occur with a following predicate adjective, the features of agreement remaining valid. This list is hardly exhaustive. Other verbs may be constructed in like manner: *il est mort jeune*, *elle est arrivée fraîche et dispose*, etc.

Closely connected to predicative expressions are those in which a past participle is used with the verb *être*. It is difficult, if not impossible, to distinguish sharply between a predicative expression and the passive voice: *il est fatigué*.

A noun phrase functioning as direct object in a sentence may be the nucleus of a predicative constuction. In this situation the two elements are not joined by a verbal form: *sa coopération a rendu mon travail plus facile*. (A pronoun may also serve as core: *ses exploits l'ont rendu célèbre*); *je trouve mon fils fatigué*; *j'estime cet homme heureux*; *je le croyais parti*; *il se savait condamné*; *on l'a jugé bon pour le service*; *je l'ai vu mécontent*; *on a laissé les portes ouvertes* (*on les a laissées ouvertes*). These constructions with *laisser* are similar to those with *laisser* followed by an infinitive phrase. Generally the respective places of a noun and an adjective standing in this particular kind of relationship may be inverted (although this may not be best stylistically). This is not the case for such elements occurring within the frame of the same noun phrase. (Note: *j'estime cet homme heureux* is ambiguous: *I estime this happy man* or *I deem this man to be happy*.) Not all of these constructions are on the same level. If the use of this construction with *rendre* is general, its use with many of the other verbs listed, *croire*, *savoir*, *estimer*, *trouver*, *juger*, *voir*, etc. may, in varying degrees have a more literary flavor. It is more usual, but perhaps also less elegant, to say: *je crois qu'il est heureux*, *j'estime que cet homme est heureux*, etc.

Mention must be made here of a small number of verbs like: *élire*, *proclamer*, *nommer*, which may take a similar predicative construction (two nouns): *On a élu M. X. président* (but note: *on a choisi M. X. comme* [or *pour*] *président*). *On l'a ordonné prêtre.* It may be noted that when a noun occurs as predicate, it may appear without any sort of specifier when none is required for purposes of determination. In the corresponding English expressions, this is not the case; the indefinite numeral specifier occurs: *il est professeur* - *he is a professor*.

Many grammarians include under these same headings constructions in which the noun or adjective is preceded by a preposition: *il passe pour un homme avisé*; *il passe pour intelligent*; *je tiens ce raisonnement pour valable*; *je considère cet homme comme un génie*, but such classification is founded more upon semantic than formal criteria.

In English, similar constructions exist, but they are not always exactly parallel to their French counterparts. French usage may require a preposition where English has none (*I consider him (to be) a friend* - *je le considère comme un ami*).

E. Substitutes for the Noun Phrase

If the substantive is the core of the noun phrase, once this core has been mentioned, it may in the course of subsequent references to it be omitted, and represented by one or several other parts of the noun phrase. It is in these cases particularly that the extensive functional role of the gender feature is most clearly seen.

1. Representation by noun phrase elements.

The basic structure of the noun phrase in French, it will be remembered is:

Specifier	Noun
determiner-numeral	adjective-substantive-adjective

The complete noun phrase may be exemplified by: *les deux petites maisons rouges*. In the study of the noun phrase above, the various possible combinations of the substantive with possible modifying words has been given. Generally speaking, any such word or combination of words which may occur together with a substantive present in the noun phrase may serve as a substitute for the complete noun phrase, (i.e. without the substantive), the rules of combination remaining the same. Thus, the various possible substitutes for the above examples are: 1) *les deux petites rouges*, *les deux petites*, *les deux rouges*, *les petites*, *les rouges*. Most grammar books refer here to *substantivized adjectives*, but,in fact, representation or substitution is involved, exactly as in the case of pronouns. 2) At a further stage of generalization, the noun phrase may be represented by one or several terms belonging to the class of the specifiers. Thus, the numerals: *les deux*, *deux*. 3) And finally, it may be represented by the determiner alone (*les*). The substitute forms corresponding to the determiner are generally called pronouns.

In all such constructions the gender reference remains that of the noun referred to: *quelle cravate cherchez-vous*? *La bleue*. *Quel pantalon voulez-vous mettre*? *Le gris*. In French, there is no modification of the form of the adjective when it is used as the core of a construction of the type illustrated in 1). Cf. *the rich*, *the blind*;

les riches - *les aveugles*, nor does French require the use of a prop word corresponding to *one*: *the good one*; *le bon*, *la bonne*; *the good ones*, *les bons* (*les bonnes*).

2. Noun phrase replacement forms

a) certain numeral specifiers

A small number of numeral specifiers do not have the same form when they accompany a substantive core word to which they are subordinate and when they are employed independently of such a core word. Thus, to the noun-modifying form *chaque* (*chaque personne*, *chaque livre*, etc.) corresponds the substitution forms *chacun* (masculine) - *chacune* (feminine); *chacun des élèves*; *chacune des réponses*; *chacun pour soi*. These independent forms agree in gender with the substantive they refer to and are always singular.

Likewise, to the noun-modifying forms *quelque* - *quelques* (*quelque argent*, *quelques heures*, etc.) correspond the independent forms *quelqu'un*-*quelques-uns* - *quelqu'une* - *quelques-unes*, which agree in gender with a substantive antecedent and are variable in number.

In speech the number feature is marked by the variations of the first element: singular: *quelque* /kelkə/ - plural: *quelques* /kelkəz/, which behaves like a liaison form, and the gender feature by the variation of the second element *un*(*s*) /ẽ/ - *une*(*s*) /yn/. These forms occur very frequently as noun phrase quantifiers: *quelques-uns de mes amis*...; *quelques-unes de ses propriétés*; *j'adore ces dragées, je serais content si tu m'en donnais quelques-unes*.

The masculine singular form *quelqu'un* , and also, more rarely, the masculine plural form *quelques-uns*, may also be used without reference to an antecedent. In this case, it has specifically human reference-- *someone*: *quelqu'un a coupé le courant*. So employed, *quelqu'un* forms a pair with *quelque chose*, which has specifically non-human reference -- *something*. These two forms may be followed by a complement -- adjective or participle, always having the masculine singular form, which is obligatorily introduced by *de*: *quelque chose de chaud*; *quelqu'un de gai*. In English this preposition is not used: *something hot*, *someone gay*.

Noun phrase substitutes are not limited to those terms which enter into the structure of the noun phrase. Quantifying expressions external to the noun phrase may also serve as substitutes: *beaucoup de mes amis sont partis en vacances* - *beaucoup sont partis*; *combien de personnes ont acheté ce produit*? - *Combien ont acheté ce produit*?; *combien d'argent a-t-il délapidé*? - *Combien a-t-il délapidé*?; *Fort peu d'élèves réussissent cet examen* - *Fort peu réussissent cet examen*. In the preceding, the verb agrees with the noun phrase. In others such as *la majorité de*, *un certain nombre de*, etc., the verb may agree either with the quantifier or the noun phrase depending on what is uppermost in the speaker's mind. *La plupart*, however, requires a plural verb form.

Besides these noun type quantifiers, the numeral specifiers (both cardinal numbers and indefinite numeral specifiers) may generally be used in a similar manner: *un de mes amis*; *certains de mes amis*; *quelques-uns de mes amis*. When an adjective is modified by a quantifying word (i.e. *le plus* (*beau*), *le moins* (*utile*)) a construction of this same type (often referred to as a partitive construction) may be employed: *le plus intelligent de nos enfants*; *les plus distingués des orateurs*; *la plus belle de ces histoires*. When it agrees in gender with the following substantive, the adjective so used serves to indicate one, or a number, of units of the ensemble of whatever this substantive refers to (the last example -- *la plus belle histoire parmi "ces histoires"*). In the expression *le plus beau de cette histoire* (*the best part of that story*) *beau* does not have the reference "histoire".

The expression *l'un* ... *l'autre* does not very closely resemble, in its grammatical behavior, the English words expressing reciprocity (*both*, *each other*, *one another*, etc.) which frequently serve to translate it. *L'un* ... *l'autre* may be employed as a variable noun modifier, the two elements of the expression being coordinated by *et*, *ou*, or *ni* ... *ni*; *l'un et l'autre livre*; *l'un ou l'autre raisonnement*; *ni l'une ni l'autre hypothèse*. *L'un* ... *l'autre* may also be used as a noun phrase substitute referring back to a substantive antecedent with which it agrees. The variable forms are: *l'un* ... *l'autre* /lẽ lọtre/ (masculine singular); *les uns* ... *les autres* /lẹzẽ lẹzọtr/ (masculine plural); *l'une* ... *l'autre* /lyn lọtr/ (feminine singular); *les unes* ... *les autres* /lẹzyn lẹzọtr/ (feminine plural). In this last case they are coordinated by *et*, *ou*, *ni* ... *ni*: *l'un et l'autre sont parfaits*; *il épousera l'une ou l'autre de ces demoiselles*; *ni l'un ni l'autre ne lui convient*. They may also be joined by a preposition, and not constitute a pair of coordinate elements. This is often the case in constructions with verbs, adjectives and nouns: *ils se battent l'un contre l'autre*; *ils sont las l'un de l'autre*; *l'indifférence des uns pour les autres*. In these constructions it is the second element, *l'autre* (or *les autres*) which is preceded by a preposition and which serves to introduce the complement of the given verb, adjective or noun (cf. *l'un se bat contre l'autre*; *l'un est las de l'autre*).

There also exist a number of words or expressions which cannot be classified as full-fledged noun phrases nor as substitutes for noun phrases. Most traditional grammar books class these among the "indefinite pronouns". The expression *quelque chose* which is of this type has already been discussed; other like expressions are: *autre chose* (*something*, *anything else*):

choisissez autre chose, *je ne vois pas autre chose pour vous*; *grand'chose* (*much*): *ce travail ne vaut pas grand'chose*. *Grand'chose* occurs most often after a verb accompanied by a negative modifier (*ne* ... *pas*, etc.), in interrogative sentences, or in clauses following certain verbs (*douter*, etc.) and conjunctions (*sans que* .. etc.); *peu de chose*: *c'est vraiment peu de chose*. In spite of the fact that the core word, *chose*, is normally feminine, these expressions are masculine singular.

b) *negative forms*.

There exist also in French a number of negative forms with the same function as nouns. When these words occur with a verb they normally require the presence of the negative particle *ne* before the verb form. When they occur independently of a verb form they generally retain a negative meaning.

These negative nominals are of two types:

1. *aucun*, *nul*, are numeral specifiers used as substantive substitutes, agreeing in gender with a substantive antecedent: *de tous ces livres, aucun ne me convient*; *lequel des livres voulez-vous*? *aucun*. *Nul* is a word which belongs essentially to literary language, and is much less often used. When the masculine singular form *nul* is used without reference to an antecedent, it is a synonym of *personne* (*no one*): *nul n'est censé ignorer la loi*.

2. *personne* and *rien* have exclusively nominal functions. *Personne* refers to persons (*no one*), *rien* to non-human elements (*nothing*): *personne n'est venu*; *rien ne vaut un bon repas*; *je ne vois personne*; *je ne vois rien*; *je n'ai besoin de personne*; *je n'ai besoin de rien*; *il n'y est pour rien*; *qui voit-il*? *personne*; *que voit-il*? *rien*. The use of these negative nominals excludes that of the negative word *pas* but they may occur together with *plus*, *jamais* and with each other: *il ne voit plus personne*; *personne n'osera plus jamais rien nous refuser*. When *personne* and *rien* are followed by an adjective

or an adverbial complement, this complement is introduced by de: personne d'interessant; rien de mieux; rien de valable (see quelque chose).

In French there are a number of cases where the nominal negative words may occur without ne preceding the verb to which such words are tied as subject or complement, whereas in the English parallel construction it is generally the non-negative forms (e.g. anyone, anything) which are employed. For French it is not possible to establish hard and fast rules; in many cases, there is more than one possibility. However, personne, rather than quelqu'un, n'importe qui, qui que ce soit, and rien rather quelque chose, n'importe quoi often occur after prepositions and conjunctions.

The use of rien and personne is usual when these function as object of a verb introduced by sans, sans que, and less usual after avant de plus infinitive, avant que, pour que: il a écouté sans rien comprendre; il est resté deux heures sans parler à personne; avant que quelqu'un (personne) ne vienne.

After comparative constructions with plus, moins .. que etc., these also occur: il parle mieux que personne (n'importe qui); il est plus instruit que personne (n'importe qui, or qui que ce soit).

In interrogative sentences, subordinate clauses following a negative main clause or after a few verbs such as douter and others of similar meaning, these negative words may be used in a like manner: je doute que personne fasse ce devoir.

c) other substitutes.

There is one rather special kind of noun phrase substitute which is particularly troublesome for non-native French speakers, and this often because of the apparent anomaly of the gender attributed to such a noun-phrase substitute. This is the case, for example, of the names of automobiles: *une Citröen*, *une Ford*, *une Consul*, *une Peugeot*, *une 2 CV* (read: *deux chevaux*), une *Rolls-Royce* (/rǫlzrǫjs/), etc. All these are of feminine gender because they are actually substitutes for a full noun phrase whose core word is *voiture* (*automobile*). This same principle applies to many other expressions; thus, instead of speaking of *eau de Javel* (sodium hypochlorite), a shorter substitute form, *la Javel*, is used. *La Valstar* for *la bière Valstar*. Sometimes the core word is rather general, e.g. *produit*. Thus, it is usual to say *le Solilaine* (trade name of a liquid soap for washing woolens), in spite of *la laine*. This procedure of substitute expression may also be used even when the noun modifying the word or complement is introduced by the preposition *de*. *Le vin de champagne* is referred to as *le champagne*; *le fromage de Hollande* (Edam cheese) is referred to as *le hollande*, whereas a variety of Dutch potato (*la pomme de terre*) is *la hollande*. For boats, the question has raised much controversy: *le Normandie* or *la Normandie*? *le France* or *la France*? *le Liberté* or *la Liberté*? For certain people, *le France*, a substitute for *le paquebot France* is normal. For other speakers, it is *la France*, a simple name just as a boat might be named *la Mouette*. The attempt to avoid this difficulty and to speak of *France* without an article seems rather odd to French ears. The most elegant way out of the difficulty is to use the full expression *le paquebot France*.

This procedure of substitution is not limited to proper names and to adjectives. Sometimes a prepositional phrase modifying a noun may so be used: *la sans-coeur* (Zola), i.e., *la femme sans coeur*.

Abbreviations have the gender of the full expressions they represent: *la R.A.T.P.* (*la Régie Autonome des Transports Parisiens*) the Paris bus and subway authority; *la S.N.C.F.* (*la Société Nationale des Chemins de Fer Français*), the French National Railways; *les C.R.S.* (*Compagnies Républicaines de Sécurité*), a special national police force. However, a member of this force is often referred to as *un C.R.S.*, which is a substitute construction of the type *le champagne*.

d) *Pronouns.*

The pronouns require special attention because of the peculiarities of their use and the variety of their forms. The so-called anaphoric pronouns serve most characteristically as representatives or substitutes for nouns and noun phrases, but also for other types of elements. The personal pronouns refer more directly to reality and distinguish between the speaker, the person or persons addressed and persons other than these.

Anaphoric pronoun:

The anaphoric pronouns correspond to the determiners. The correspondences are as follows.

determiner	pronoun
le	*le* *(il)*
ce	*celui*
mon	*le mien*
ton	*le tien*
son	*le sien*
notre	*le nôtre*
votre	*le vôtre*
leur	*le leur*
quel	*lequel*

The pronouns like the determiners vary in gender and number. For the sake of brevity, the masculine singular form is used to refer to the set of variable forms.

1) The Basic Anaphonic Pronoun

The basic anaphoric pronoun *le* corresponds to the basic determiner *le*. English counterparts *he*, *she*, *it* refer on the contrary directly to reality, no formal grammatical feature relating them to the English determiner *the*. The pronoun *le* contrasts with the undetermined substitute *en*: *il désire deux pommes* - *il en désire deux*; *il désire les deux pommes* - *il les désire*.

This pronoun may replace noun phrases in the various grammatical functions filled by these in the sentence. The form of the pronoun varies not only according to the gender and number of the term it replaces, but also according to the function it fills in the sentence or clause, that is, according to the grammatical context in which it occurs. The contextual variants of this pronoun are more numerous than those of English which distinguishes only between subject and non-subject: *he*/*him*, *she*/*her*. Also, certain forms of this pronoun, the agglutinated forms, although functioning as noun phrase substitutes do not always occur in the same positions as noun phrases. In English, the corresponding pronouns generally occupy the same place in the sentence as noun phrases.

The forms of this French pronoun are as follows:

Agglutinated Subject Forms

m.s.	*il* (/il/often/i/ when the following word begins with a consonant.)
m.pl.	*ils* (/il/, /i/, liaison form: /ilz/, /iz/)
f.s.	*elle*
f.pl.	*elles* (/el/, liaison form /elz/

Agglutinated Direct Object Forms

m.s.	*le, l'* (before an initial vowel other than the type labelled "h aspiré")
f.s.	*la, l'* (Ibidem)
m&f pl.	*les*

Agglutinated Indirect Object

sing.	*lui*
pl.	*leur*

Non-agglutinated forms, which occur in the same contexts as noun phrases:

m.s.	*lui*	f.s.	*elle*
m.pl.	*eux*	f.pl.	*elles*

The agglutinated forms occur in the functions indicated for them. Subject: *Ma soeur est plus jeune que moi*; *elle n'a que dix ans*. *Mon frère est gentil*; *il me choie*. *Mes parents ne sont pas là*; *ils sont partis en vacances*. Direct Object: *Je cherche mes amis*. *Ah! je les vois en train de jouer*. *Je cherche mon manteau*; *je l'ai oublié au restaurant*.

Indirect Object: *Je parlerai à mon frère* - *Je lui parlerai*.

The position in which the agglutinated forms occur are much more complex than in English. If, in the usual kinds of declarative sentences, the subject form of the pronoun precedes the verb and may be considered to occupy the same position as a noun phrase functioning as subject, in interrogative sentences it occurs in contexts in which noun phrases do not appear. *Vient-il*? is a correct French sentence but *Vient Pierre*? is not. When the subject of an interrogative sentence is a noun or a noun phrase, the inversion, which serves as one of the several possible marks of interrogation in French, takes the form: Pierre vient-il?

The agglutinated direct and indirect object pronouns precede the verb form: je le vois, but not je vois le. The agglutinated forms follow only with the affirmative forms of the imperative: suis-le but ne le suis pas.

Normally, the masculine form of the pronoun is used to refer back to a masculine noun phrase (i.e. antecedent) and the feminine form to a feminine antecedent. When the antecedent is composed of noun phrases of both genders, it is the masculine form that is used, les garçons et les filles .... ils. The antecedent may sometimes belong to a word-class other than the substantive class. It may be a clause or something vague or indeterminate, not conceived of as a substantive. In such cases, it is the masculine form (generally the masculine singular, il-le) which is employed: il faut, il m'est venu une idée à l'esprit (so called impersonal il): il t'aime, je le sais (i.e. qu'il t'aime; English I know it); croyez-vous qu'il puisse gagner? Je le crois (I think so). The masculine singular form occurs more frequently here than English it in corresponding situations. In constructions of this type il cannot generally be replaced by another noun or pronoun, it is the sole possibility. Le cannot vary in number or gender. Êtes-vous prêtes? Nous le sommes. According to strictest grammatical canons, the same construction with the masculine singular pronoun is to be employed as well with a noun used as a predicate and not preceded by a specifier: êtes-vous reine?

Je le suis. All these examples indicate that the two genders, masculine and feminine, are not on the same plane. The masculine is the dominant gender. A pronoun has feminine gender only when its antecedent is *exclusively* feminine. In all other cases it is the masculine form that is employed. There is no neuter gender in French in the same sense a neuter exists in Latin or German; French possesses no neuter nouns. What certain French grammarians refer to as neuter is simply the use of the masculine singular form in contexts where no other form inflected for gender and number is possible, or else where the antecedent is not a substantive.

Instead of the terms agglutinated and non-agglutinated pronouns, many grammarians use the terms non-accented (atonic) and accented(tonic). These latter expressions are not particularly apt, for the so-called non-accented forms may quite normally bear an "accent" in pre-pause position as for instance in: *vient-il?*, *pousse-le*. What characterizes all agglutinated pronouns is the fact that they never occur in isolation; their occurrence depends upon the simultaneous presence of a verbal form: *je le vois*; and they do not generally take any kind of modifying words, with exceptions belonging to literary or archaic language: *je le vois qui vient*: *je, soussigné* ...

2) *The deictic or demonstrative pronouns*.

The deictic pronouns are two types: those inflected for number and gender and the invariable deictic.

Inflected				*Invariable*
m.s.	*celui*	f.s.	*celle*	*ce* (*c*') before a vowel
m.pl.	*ceux*	f.pl.	*celles*	

These give rise, through the addition of the particles -*ci* and -*là* (already discussed in the paragraphs dealing with the deictic adjective *ce*) to a double series of compound forms: *celui-ci*, *ceux-ci*, etc. and *celui-là*, *ceux-là*, etc. *ce*, *ceci*, *cela*. The compound forms occupy the same positions as noun phrases. More restricted in use, the simple forms generally do not occur alone but are used when followed by a relative clause, a subordinate word or phrase introduced by a preposition or a participle; *celui que j'ai vu*; *mes vêtements et ceux de ma femme*; *le journal d'hier et celui d'aujourd'hui*; *les avions construits par les Français et ceux construits par les Américains*. The latter construction is frowned upon by purists who object to using the forms under discussion before anything but relatives and the preposition *de*. Likewise, the simple form of the invariable deictic pronoun occurs only when followed by a relative clause: *ce que j'ai fait*; *ce dont je me sers*; *ce à quoi je pense*; or in connection with forms of the verb *être*: *c'est moi*; *ce sera pour une autre fois*; *ce doit être une corvée* (literary), and in a few set phrases belonging especially to written literary style: *sur ce*; *ce faisant*. *Ce*, when subject of the verb *être*, may be inverted as in the interrogative sentence: *est-ce toi*? The compound forms *ceci* and *cela* generally occupy the same positions as noun phrases.

The inflected forms agree with their antecedent in gender and number, though the feminine plural form is pronounced like the feminine singular. *De ces deux cravates, je préfère celle-ci*; *celle-là n'est pas assez sobre*. A partitive construction may also occur: *celle des cravates que je préfère*..., *ceux des élèves qui*... When there is no specific antecedent these forms have human reference. *Ne faîtes pas de mal à ceux qui vous aiment*..., *à celui qui vous aime* (masculine)..., *à celle qui vous aime* (feminine).

The deictic forms have a more precise meaning than the basic anaphoric pronouns (see above, the relationship between the specifiers *ce* and *le*), and often replace these in contexts such as those in which it is not perfectly clear what the antecedent is: in *Marie cherche sa mère*; *elle l'avait quittée en ville*, the subject pronoun *elle* necessarily refers to the subject of the preceding sentence, *Marie.* In order to refer to the antecedent *sa mère* in subject position, it would be necessary to use the form *celle-ci* (or *cette dernière*); *celle-ci s'est affolée en ne voyant plus sa fille*. Unlike *il*, *celui* may be modified by a relative clause: *celui qui m'a parlé, n'est pas Français* - *il n'est pas Français*.

The particle -*ci* is supposed to indicate relative proximity and the particle -*là* relative distance, but this is only true, in present-day spoken French usage, when both -*ci* and -*là* occur in the same utterance. In speech, *celui-ci* refers back to the last-mentioned substantive (i.e. closest to *celui-ci* in the text) and *celui-là* to the substantive further off. *Paul et Pierre sont des amis*. *Celui-ci (Pierre) est gras et celui-là (Paul) est maigre*. Sometimes, the form in -*là* is used to refer to what has just been said and the form -*ci* to what will follow. *Cela* and *ceci* are frequently used in this way: *qu'il réussisse, cela ne nous étonne point*. *Mais il faut remarquer ceci*: *sa réussite n'est que relative*.

When -*ci* and -*là* do not appear in the same utterance, the choice of one or the other is hardly determined by relative proximity or distance, but marks two different styles: -*ci* sounds more refined and -*là* more familiar. This applies to *voici* and *voilà*: -*la* forms (cela, etc.) are far more frequent than -*ci* forms.

The simple invariable form *ce* and the compound forms *ceci* and *cela* (often abbreviated to *ça* , in spoken French and particularly when it is not specifically contrasted with *ceci*) are generally employed to refer back to, or to sum up, an antecedent that is not a substantive or conceived as such: *il n'est pas venu*; *c'est regrettable, il n'est pas venu, cela prouve son manque d'intérêt* or *il n'est pas venu, ce qui prouve*...; *le renvoyer, c'est faire de lui un ennemi*; *ce qui m'intéresse, c'est l'aspect technique de cette question*.

Ce accompanied by a relative corresponds to English *what* or *which* without antecedent. *Ceci* and *cela* are never accompanied by any modifier.

The simple form *ce* is used before the forms of the verb *être* followed by a non-agglutinated pronoun, an adjective or a specified noun: *C'est moi*; *c'est faux*; *c'est un professeur*. Its use here raises a problem of verb agreement. The singular verb form is generally employed, but when the predicate is a plural noun the use of the plural form of the verb is most often found: *c'est mon ami*; *ce sont mes amis*. With third person plural pronoun forms, both the singular and plural forms of the verb are equally possible: *c'est eux* or *ce sont eux*.

The simple form *ce* and the compound forms *ceci* and *cela* may also, on occasion, represent substantive antecedents: *le tableau que vous voyez là*, *c'est son chef d'oeuvre*; *Quel est cet animal*? *C'est un vache*; *un enfant, ça court* (pejorative or hypocoristic use). Actually, the invariable forms, indifferent to the features of gender and number are fundamental as compared to the more complex inflected forms. They most usually occur in the absence of, but are not incompatible with, a non-substantive antecedent, their meaning being deictic and emphatic.

In certain contexts, the form *il*, used impersonally, alternates with *ce*: *il est possible de faire ce travail*; *c'est possible* (i.e. *faire ce travail est possible*). The use of *il*, being somewhat ambiguous because the same form may also represent a masculine singular substantive, many speakers often replace it by *ce* or *ça*, and especially in speech (*c'est possible de faire le travail*; *ça arrive qu'on prenne l'avion*). But in literary style, too, the use of *ce* (*cela*, *ceci*) occurs in constructions that may be classed as impersonal: *cela me plaît de travailler la nuit*. In a few cases, *cela* (*ça*) alone may occur with impersonal reference: *que ça sent bon dehors*! *ça gèle*.

Native English speakers who tend all too easily to equate French *ce* with English *it*, its frequent equivalent, should keep in mind that when a substantive antecedent has already been mentioned or is definitely present in the mind of the speaker, not ce but a pronominal form inflected for gender and number should be employed.

3) possessive pronouns

The possessive pronouns, as their name implies, have in addition to the feature of determination that of "possession". The person distinction may be compared with the personal pronouns. From the grammatical standpoint these forms agree with their antecedent in gender and in number.

Grammatical Gender and Number Variation

possessor	mas. sing.	mas. pl.	fem. sing.	fem. pl.
je	le mien	les miens	la mienne	les miennes
tu	le tien	les tiens	la tienne	les tiennes
il, elle, on	le sien	les siens	la sienne	les siennes
nous	le nôtre	les nôtres	la nôtre	les nôtres
vous	le vôtre	les vôtres	la vôtre	les vôtres
ils, elles	le leur	les leurs	la leur	les leurs

For these forms the determiner and the possessive word form an inseparable whole. Only in set phrases of a literary or jocular nature such as je l'ai faite mienne, ...à la bonne tienne (for [je bois] à ta bonne santé) do we find these forms dissociated. If the forms corresponding to je, tu and il show clearcut gender and number distinctions, the forms corresponding to nous, vous and ils only mark, in both speech and writing, the number distinction.

The agreement in gender with the antecedent is obligatory: Avez-vous trouvé un appartement? Non. Je vous prêterai le mien; les livres par terre sont les siens. The distinction between masculine, feminine or neuter possessors that exists in English between his, hers, its has no counterpart in French. They are all rendered by le sien, la sienne, etc.

4) *interrogative pronouns*

The pronoun corresponding to *quel* is *lequel*, which is variable in gender and in number. The forms of this pronoun are the same as those of the relative word *lequel* from which it cannot be separated.

Like English *which*, *lequel* may be followed by a partitive-type complement: *Lequel des livres voulez-vous?*

5) *personal pronouns*

With respect to their forms and use, the personal pronouns show a certain parallelism with the anaphoric pronouns, particularly in the existence of both agglutinated and non-agglutinated forms, and that of distinct agglutinated forms marking the subject and object relations.

Unlike the anaphoric pronouns, which refer back to a substantive or a noun phrase already mentioned, the personal pronouns need no antecedent. Normally, the first person refers to the speaker, the second person to the person addressed. The so-called first person plural includes the speaker, the second person plural excludes the speaker. The third person includes everything that is neither first nor second person. It is at this point that the anaphoric pronoun *le* and the system of personal pronouns overlap.

The personal pronouns have, like the pronoun *le* two series of forms: agglutinated and non-agglutinated; this latter type being subdivided into subject and object forms.

The personal pronoun forms are as follows;

	Agglutinated		Non-agglutinated
	subject	object	
1st. per. sing.	je	me	moi
2nd. per. sing.	tu	te	toi
3rd. pers.	on	se	soi
1st. per. pl.	nous	nous	nous
2nd. per. pl.	vous	vous	vous

Many grammarians subdivide the agglutinated object pronouns into two subgroups: direct object and indirect object, the former having a behavior parallel to the form le (as in je le vois) and the latter a behavior parallel to that of the form lui (as in je lui parle), that is, corresponding to different grammatical functions.

The personal pronouns of French are comparable to those of English from the point of view of their meaning. A few divergencies, however, must be mentioned: 1) The distinction between tu and vous (also, ton and votre and le tien and le vôtre) has no counterpart in contemporary English, a single form you (your, yours) served as the second person pronoun both for the singular and the plural. The form thou (thee), comparable to tu, is archaic and of restricted use. When addressing a single person in French either tu or vous is used. The use of one or the other depends on the nature of the social and/or personal relationship existing between the speaker and his interlocutor. A shift from tu to vous (or from vous to tu) normally implies a change in the nature of this relationship. At a certain point in time, there are people to whom you say tu and others to whom you say vous. One should distinguish between a one-way and a reciprocal use of tu. The one-way use of tu, for addressing an interlocutor of inferior standing, was more common in the past: down to the beginning of this century, in some rural districts, the father would say tu to both mother and children, while both mother and children would say vous to the father. One-way tu is still employed when addressing children up to about the age of twelve. Above that age, its use depends upon the degree of familiarity existing between the speaker and the boy or girl. In French schools, the elementary school teacher (the instituteur, institutrice or maître, maîtresse) generally uses tu. In the lycée, the teacher (professeur) most generally uses the vous form when addressing his students, at least after the first year (*classe de 6^{e}*). Pets are also addressed as *tu*.

The reciprocal use of *tu* is general today between man and wife, parents and children, and wide-spread among close relatives. It is general among children of the same grade and boys of the same school. Reciprocal *tu* among teen-agers, boys and girls, on first acquaintance, is a recent development which is apt to make some parents shudder. The use of *tu* is also spreading among university students. To avoid possible embarrassment, the learner should always use *vous* until invited to do otherwise. As a general rule he may, however, use *tu* with children under twelve and, if he is under twenty himself, with school friends of approximately his age. When addressing more than one person, the *vous*-form is always used; there is not distinct plural form parallel to *tu*.

Many grammarians treat the pronoun *on* apart from the personal pronouns, and designate it as an "indefinite" pronoun. However, like the other personal pronouns *on* relates directly to reality and does not, like anaphoric pronouns, require an antecedent. Its meaning being extremely flexible, it is very widely used in everyday French to represent virtually any person or persons. This is best illustrated by its meanings in a series of examples:

1. Moralistic "one": *On ne dit pas cela* (*ça*) *One doesn't say things like that*

2. *Quelqu'un*: *On a renversé l'encre* *Somebody spilled the ink*.

3. Discreet *je*: *Peut-on savoir où se trouve*...? *Can you tell me where*...?

4. Depreciative or sarcastic *tu*: *Eh bien*! *On a fait encore une bêtise*? *Well now*! *You've blundered again*?

5. *il* or *elle* in certain contexts: e.g. Having sent someone to see if someone is working; *Eh, bien*! *On travaille la-bas*?

6. Nous: This sense is extremely frequent in spoken French: on a vu ce film We've seen this movie. Qui attendez-vous? On attend nos amis. We're waiting for our friends.

7. Depreciative or ironical vous: Eh, bien! On parle tous à la fois! You're all speaking at once!

8. Indeterminate ils, elles: On nous demande trop! They ask too much of us.

In addition, on is very frequently used in cases where English prefers a passive construction, i.e. when the subject is unknown or indeterminate: cf. on m'a battu. I was beaten (somebody beat me); on m'a donné de l'argent. I've been given some money.

When on is used as a substitute for another personal pronoun, it may occur as the subject of a passive construction: on a été volé (nous).

The pronoun on normally requires masculine singular agreement; on est content. However, when it distinctly is used to refer to a woman the feminine form of an adjective used predicatively may be employed; speaking to a girl: Alors, on est contente? (tu es...?). Likewise, the number distinction may be variable, according to whether the reference is to one or to more than one person.

Se, soi

The French personal pronoun object forms have two important contextual meanings which are not usually associated with their English counterparts: "reflexive" and "reciprocal" meaning. In French, the difference between reflexive and non-reflexive meaning is not necessarily marked, as it is most often in English, by the suffix -self (e.g. himself), although such forms exist in French (lui-même). The meaning of "reflexive" is marked in French simply by the fact that the subject of the verb and the object pronoun employed with the verb have the same person and number reference: je me lave, nous nous lavons.

Besides the various third person anaphoric and personal pronouns already mentioned, French also has a pronoun se, which refers back to a third person subject (singular or plural) of the sentence or clause in which it occurs. Il se lave - he washes himself, parallel to: je me lave - I wash myself; tu te laves - you wash yourself, etc., may be opposed to il le lave (not the same person as il). Se has been classed among the personal pronouns because its contextual behavior is identical with that of the agglutinated object forms of the personal pronouns, and corresponds to the so-called "reflexive" use of the personal pronoun object forms. Classing it with on is, however, gratuitous. The non-agglutinated form soi is used generally to refer to an indeterminate subject, very frequently on. On ne doit pas vivre pour soi. Chacun pour soi but mon fils s'occupe déjà bien de lui-même. There is no specific non-"reflexive" object form corresponding to on. The most common object pronoun used indeterminately is probably vous: on vous les fait payer 30 francs (on = whoever sells; vous = whoever buys). The reflexive use of the personal pronouns will be more fully discussed in the course of the study of the verb.

Words referring to personal pronouns agree with the latter in gender and number. In the case of pronouns which do not distinguish between genders the agreement is with the sex of the person represented. To a male friend: vous êtes matinal; to friends: vous êtes matinaux; to a girl: vous êtes matinale; to several girls: vous êtes matinales.

The personal pronoun system of French shows less formal variation than that found among the contextual variants of the anaphoric pronoun. The forms vous and nous are invariable; only the singular forms: je, tu, on present a set of variants. If we exclude soi, whose use is practically limited to non-subject and non-predicative uses, the non-agglutinated forms occur in the same contexts as nouns. The agglutinated forms stand apart, and like the agglutinated variants of anaphoric pronoun *le*, they may occur in contexts where noun phrases do not occur; i.e. when such a pronoun used as object precedes the verb it accompanies. The agglutinated pronouns are neither prefixes nor suffixes, for they may sometimes occur preceding, sometimes following the verb form: *tu viens* - *viens-tu*? *regarde-le* - *ne le regarde pas*. Further, the agglutinated subject pronouns may be separated from their verb form (*tu ne lui parleras plus*) within the sentence but they do not appear without a verb.

The place of the anaphoric and the personal pronouns.

The subject form of the personal pronouns generally occupies the initial position in the sequence of pronouns agglutinated to the verb form. However, when inversion takes place, the subject pronoun immediately follows the verb form. *Il peut* - *peut-il*, *vous (1) vous (2) tracassez* — *vous (2) tracassez-vous (1)*? Such inversion may occur: 1) in interrogative sentences requiring a yes-or-no response: *viendra-t-il? Jean viendra-t-il?*; and in written language, especially, after certain adverbs or adverbial phrases, such as: *peut-être*, *sans doute*, *aussi*, *à peine*: *peut-être viendra-t-il à notre secours*; in spoken language this obligation is less strict. Cf. also parenthetical expressions, such as: *dit-il*, *croit-il*, etc., frequent in the literary medium.

In all cases except when the accompanying verbal form is the imperative and used without negation, the agglutinated object forms of the anaphoric and personal pronoun precede the verb form: *je vous vois*; *je regarde la maison* - *je la regarde*; *je parle à Marie* - *je lui parle*; the imperative (*regarde-moi*), however, transposed into a negative sentence, becomes: *ne me regarde pas*.

More than one object pronoun may be agglutinated to the verb form. Their combinations are subject to certain rules and restrictions. The forms belonging to a given one of the five classes that follow are mutually exclusive. The classes are numbered according to the order in which their members appear in the utterance.

I	II	III	IV	V
personal pronoun object	anaphoric pronoun direct object	anaphoric indirect object		
me, te, se	le, la	lui	y	en
nous, vous	les	leur		

The combinations that are most usual are: I-II, I-IV, I-V, II-III, II-IV, IV-V, III-V. *Il me le donne* (I-II); *il m'y mène* (I-IV); *il m'en parlera* (I-V); *je la lui donnerai* (II-III); *je les y apporterai* (II-IV); *je les en remercierai* (II-V); *je lui en parlerai* (III-V). These combinations do not absolutely exhaust all theoretical possibilities but they do account for the vast majority of occurrences.

When the imperative without negation is used, and the agglutinated object forms follow the verbal form, the order of the five classes is the same, but the strictest grammatical canons require that class II pronouns occupy the first position: *montre-le-moi*. However, *montre-moi-le* is often heard, but should not be imitated.

When communication requires that combinations other than the above should occur, only one agglutinated form is employed along with a non-agglutinated form. Here, a functional principle intervenes. The pronoun functioning as direct object is agglutinated, whereas the pronoun having the function of indirect object is represented by the non-agglutinated form preceded by the preposition *à*: *je m'adresse à lui*; *il se présentera à nous tout à l'heure*; *il me recommande à vous*.

In the spoken language, oral or in print, the first and second person pronouns are often used expressively to underline the interest that the speaker takes in the action or that he wishes to evoke in the hearer: *regarde-moi ce désordre*; *bois-moi ce sirop*; *tu vas m'apporter ça au client*. The personal pronoun so used has the formal function of an indirect object and as such cannot be sharply separated from indirect object expressions of the type: *on lui a construit un beau pavillon* (i.e. for him), but its use does not conform to the combinatory rules given above; it occurs in addition to some other pronoun or pronouns: *je te lui en donnerai, moi, des robes*!

6) *y, en*

The table of the agglutinated pronoun forms includes *y* and *en*, often called adverbial pronouns or pronominal adverbs. Like the anaphoric pronouns, they may be considered to substitute for an antecedent. This antecedent must be defined not only in terms of word class, but also in terms of grammatical construction, such as: *preposition + complement*, which may fill the grammatical functions of an adverbial phrase (i.e. occur in the same contexts as adverbs), those of indirect object, and, for *en*, that of direct object as well. The complement may be a substantive or a non-substantive (clause, infinitive, etc.). When the occurrence of *y* corresponds to the functions of an adverbial phrase, one of a number of prepositions may be considered to introduce the prepositional phrase represented by *y*: *à*, *chez*, *dans*, *en*, *sur*, *sous*, etc. (generally prepositions expressing spatial relations). However, the preposition *de* is incompatible with *y* and stands rather in close relation to *en*: *Il est à Paris*; *j'y vais*. *Le livre est dans le tiroir*; *il y est*. *j'ai vu votre stylo sous la table*; *il doit y être encore*. *Il est entré dans ma chambre*; *il y est entré*. (But *il vient de Paris*; *il en vient*). In the construction preposition + complement, the complement already identified or indicated by a gesture, may be omitted. As certain propositions, e.g. *dans*, *sur*, *sous*, especially, do not occur without a following complement, a related (adverbial) form replaces these: *dans* - *dedans*, *sous* - *dessous*, *sur* - *dessus*, or a compound form *là-dessus*, etc.: *je compte sur votre aide*, *je compte là-dessus*; *j'ai misé sur ce numéro*, *j'ai misé là-dessus*. The use of *y* represents a greater degree of abstraction (cf. *le stylo rouge* - *le rouge* - *le*).

The use of *y* also marks, in most cases, that the complement of the preposition is not human, or more generally, animate. When the reference is animate, it is the non-agglutinated personal or anaphoric pronoun preceded by a preposition that is employed. Thus, to pairs such as: *Je m'oppose à votre proposition*, *je m'y oppose* (*proposition* has inanimate reference), correspond other pairs, such as: *Je m'oppose à cet homme*, *je m'oppose à lui*; *Je pense à mes enfants*, *je pense à eux*. This animate/non-animate distinction is prolonged by the distinction between the construction: preposition + non-agglutinated pronoun and the use of forms like *dedans*, *dessus*, as described above: *Il compte sur cet homme*, *il compte sur lui*; *Il compte sur mon aide*, *il compte là-dessus*.

Sometimes, the agglutinated indirect object pronoun (*lui*, *leur*) occurs when the reference is human: *je lui oppose mon refus* (to him), but *j'y oppose mon refus* (e.g. *à cette requête*). However, this pronoun is not incompatible with inanimate reference: *La carrosserie de la voiture est toute bosselée; on lui a donné des coups de marteau*.

The use of *en* is in many ways parallel to that of *y*. *En* represents, at least in its most usual occurrences, a prepositional phrase introduced by *de*, to the exclusion of other prepositions: *on parle de ce livre*, *on en parle*;

il est content de son séjour, *il en est content*; *je me souviens de cette rencontre*, *je m'en souviens*. *Je viens de la campagne*, *j'en viens*. In these uses, *en* like *y*, is, in standard French, generally not employed when the complement of the preposition *de* has human reference: *je parle de cet homme*, *je parle de lui*; *je suis content de cet homme*, *je suis content de lui*; *je me souviens de cet homme*, *je me souviens de lui*. In familiar French, however, may be heard such utterances as *il aime cette jeune fille et il en est aimé* instead of the more generally acceptable ...*et il est aimé d'elle*.

En may thus represent various kinds of constructions introduced by *de*, even a phrase which is subordinate to a noun phrase: *je connais la valeur de ses arguments*, *j'en connais la valeur*. This construction is employed, rather than *je connais sa valeur*, where there is properly no "possession" *il n'a plus le sentiment de son infériorité*, *il n'en a plus le sentiment*. Cf. *je connais la valeur de cet homme*, *je connais sa valeur*, where there is a human possessor.

En may also occur as a direct object. *En* is the usual substitute for a noun phrase presented as undetermined whereas the use of *le* contains specifically the meaning "determined". *En* may represent a complete noun phrase; *vous avez quelques bons livres*; *j'en ai aussi*. It is required whenever the substantive, already identified, is omitted, but words of the adjective and numeral specifier classes also appear with it: *je voudrais des oeufs*; *j'en voudrais cinq or six petits*. It is particularly frequent as the substitute for a noun phrase having as specifier the partitive article: *je voudrais du pain*; *j'en voudrais*; *je vois deux traits noirs*; *j'en vois deux noirs*; *j'en vois deux*; *j'en vois* (cf. *je les vois*). So employed, *en* may refer to substantives having both human and non-human reference: *j'ai vu des hommes dans la rue*; *j'en ai vu aussi*. In this particular construction, *le* and *en* are mutually exclusive, whereas in the examples parallel to those found with *y*, they are not: *il le remercie de ses cadeaux*; *il l'en remercie*.

A given agglutinated pronoun may not fill simultaneously two distinct functions and particularly those of direct object and indirect object when related to two coordinated verbs even when the form for the direct and indirect object is the same: nous les aimons et leur obéissons; nous vous aimons et vous obéissons. The pronoun must be repeated.

7) the non-agglutinated pronouns

The non-agglutinated pronouns occur in those contexts where the agglutinated pronouns do not appear, that is, they are not obligatorily joined to a verb form. As has been seen, the agglutinated forms occur only under certain specific conditions, but the non-agglutinated forms often behave like noun phrases. The principal uses of the non-agglutinated forms are: 1) after a preposition: viens avec moi; 2) When the pronoun occurs without a verb form: Qui le fera? Moi; Paul est plus grand que moi. 3) When a pronoun is juxtaposed or coordinated with another pronoun or with a noun or noun phrase: Paul et moi viendrons or more usually Paul et moi, nous viendrons; or with an agglutinated subject pronoun occurring with the verb form: Toi et lui, (vous) partirez demain. The agglutinated pronoun is used especially when there is a difference of person between the coordinated terms. Likewise, for the object function: Je vous remercie, vous et votre frère. 4) A similar construction is employed also for emphatic, intensive or expressive purposes: moi, je le veux; il m'a abandonné, moi. Moi, je ne l'ai pas vu, il ne m'a pas vu, moi, with the agglutinated and non-agglutinated form of a given pronoun both occurring in the same sentence. In the spoken language, sentences such as: Et moi, je te dis que lui, c'est un idiot, are frequent. In this expressive use, the position of the non-agglutinated pronoun is not fixed but its generally determined by stylistic factors. 5) When the personal pronoun is used with the expression c'est ... (qui or que), ect.: c'est moi; c'est lui qui vous paiera; ce sont eux qui partiront and with the negative expression ne...que (only) il ne voit que toi; 6) in most cases, when a personal or anaphoric pronoun is accompanied by a modifying word or phrase; apposition, modifying adjective, or realtive clause: lui, écrivain célébre, était l'object de tous les regards; lui seul pourra nous tirer d'affaire; toi qui parles, tu ferais mieux d'agir. Constructions of the type: je le vois qui vient are purely literary and rather rare.

8) interrogative words

The forms of the basic interrogative words and those of the relative words are practically identical. The two types are related, and present, for the most part, the same set of forms. Unlike the anaphoric pronouns, the interrogative words do not suppose an antecedent, and their designation as pronouns is, in this respect, an inexact label. The interrogative words, however, fill a given slot in the sentence or clause and demand for that particular position some kind of explicit designation or information. The fundamental distinction implied by these words is the one between human and non-human. Formal distinctions indicating grammatical function are few.

The French interrogative words are of two kinds, simple and compound; simple forms are invariable in gender and in number, and as such take masculine singular agreement and third person singular verb. Among compound forms lequel (auquel, duquel, etc.) varies in number and gender and either refers back to an antecedent or carries its antecedent with it: Lequel des garçons voyez-vous?

The simple forms are qui, que, quoi: the fundamental distinction is between qui which has human reference and the two latter forms, for non-human reference. Qui occurs in all the possible grammatical contexts of the interrogative word: Subject: Qui veut danser?; predicate: Qui est cet homme?;

direct object: *qui voyez-vous*?; following a preposition: *Avec qui danse-t-il*?; followed by prepositional phrase subordinated to it: *qui de vous fera le travail*? When *qui* does not function as subject the inversion of the pronoun subject takes place: *Qui a-t-il invité*? If the subject is a noun the anaphoric *il*, *elle*, *ils*, *elles*, appears after the verb: *Qui ton père a-t-il invité*? In: *Qui a invité ton père*, *ton père* can only be interpreted as the object.

Que and *quoi* have non-human reference. *Que*, functionally speaking, has very restricted use. It is an agglutinated form and functions usually as direct object, more rarely as predicate. Its occurrence supposes the concurrent presence of a verb form which it precedes and to which it is attached: *que voulez-vous*? *Que se passe-t-il*? The use of this form requires the inversion of the subject. *Que veut cet homme*? No subject pronoun marker is employed. In all other contexts, it is the form *quoi* that is employed; after a preposition: *à quoi servira cet argent*?; when no verb follows: *quoi*? *quoi de neuf*? *quoi de plus magnifique*?; when the interrogative word, as direct object, is placed after the verb: *vous voulez quoi*?: before an infinitive, both *que* and *quoi* are possible: *Que faire*? or *quoi faire*?

The form *que* does not occur as the subject of a sentence. When it is necessary to employ an interrogative having non-human reference as subject, French has recourse to a compound form: *qu'est-ce qui*: *qu'est-ce qui vous gêne*? The initial *que* (*qu'*) indicates non-human reference and the final *qui* the subject function. (cf. *Qui vous gêne*? who is bothering you?) On this same model other compound forms exist: *qui est-ce qui* synonymous with *qui*, human reference, but limited to the functions of subject; *qui est-ce que - qui*, human reference, direct object: *qui est-ce que vous voulez voir*? (or *qui voulez-vous voir*?); *qu'est-ce que*, non-human reference and direct object function, a variant of *que*: *qu'est-ce que vous attendez*? (or *qu'attendez-vous*?). A parallel construction may also be employed with the interrogative *quoi*: *De quoi est-ce que vous vivez*? Of all these compound forms only *qu'est-ce qui* does not constitute an optional variant form of a simple interrogative word. However, these compound forms are frequently used, both in writing and in speech. In speech they are probably more frequent. With these compound forms, the inversion of the subject does not occur, the order remains that of the simple declarative (non-interrogative) sentence, exactly as with the interrogative yes-or-no sentence introducer: est-ce que. They present none of the complications raised by inverted word order. In sentences of the type: qu'est-ce que la science? in which the verb être as copula does not appear, the literary language prefers qu'est-ce que to que. In spoken style, this construction is often, moreover, expanded to qu'est-ce que c'est que: qu'est-ce que c'est qu'un intellectuel?

The forms of the interrogative adjective and the interrogative pronoun are also used in exclamations: quel: Quel monde (il y avait)! What a crowd (there was)! (both written and spoken style): que: Que de gens il y avait! que here functions as an exclamative substantive quantifier (cf. combien); que also occurs as an exclamative adverbial quantifier: Qu'il est intelligent (How intelligent he is!), Qu'il travaille bien! (How well he works!). To familiar, spoken French belong: qu'est-ce que and ce que (here an abbreviated form of qu'est-ce que): qu'est-ce qu'il y avait comme monde! ce qu'il y avait comme monde! /skiavękǫmmõd/. (The adverb comme, which belongs to a more literary style, is also used in this way: comme il y avait du monde; Comme il est intelligent, Comme il travaille bien).

3. Noun Clauses

The term noun clause designates clauses which have the same functions as the noun phrase, that is, which may function as subject, predicate, direct or indirect object within a clause or a sentence. As English also has noun clauses, this category does not pose a general problem for English learners of French, but there are questions of detail which may be accompanied by formal differences.

In French a noun clause introduced by *que* may function as the subject of a sentence, the personal verb form of the clause requiring the subjunctive mood: *qu'il ait commis une gaffe est maintenant une certitude*. Often such a clause used as subject may be resumed by *ce* or *cela*: *qu'il ait commis une gaffe, c'est*... (or *cela est*...). It may also occur in apposition: *le fait qu'il ait fait une gaffe*... It may be noted here that whatever the grammatical function of a noun clause introduced by *que* and occurring at the beginning of a sentence, the personal verb form of such a clause requires the subjunctive mood: *qu'il soit le coupable, je le crois bien*. Noun clauses functioning as subject and introduced by *qui* are also encountered: *qui trop embrasse, mal étreint* (*embrasse* is indicative mood here). This type is frequent in proverbs, but is not usual in speech. To *que* and *qui* may be added *quiconque* (*whoever*): *quiconque parlera sera puni*. *Quiconque* is always subject of the clause it introduces.

Noun clauses also occur as predicates: *la triste verité,(c')est qu'il a volé*.

Noun clauses occur most frequently as object complement of transitive verbs such as *savoir*, *croire*, *affirmer*, *vouloir*, *regretter*, etc.: *je sais qu'il ne viendra pas*; *il croit que nous sommes partis*; *je veux qu'il fasse attention*; *nous regrettons qu'il ne possède pas les qualifications requises*. Such noun clauses may also follow a construction of the type *être* (less usually another verb such as *sembler*, etc.) plus predicative adjective: *nous sommes heureux que vous soyez arrivés sains et saufs*. It is also employed after impersonal constructions: *il est évident qu'il ne réussira jamais*; *il faut qu'il réussisse*. In the functions of complement, both the subjunctive and the indicative moods are possible. Their use is generally conditioned.

When the rules of grammatical structure require that a noun clause be preceded by a preposition as indirect object, the preposition is generally not followed directly by *que*. A relative construction whose antecedent is *ce* is employed: *veillez à ce qu'il ne se blesse pas*; *nous nous attendons à ce que le coupable soit démasqué*.

Finally, a noun clause may depend upon a noun related in form and meaning to a transitive verb: *il a exprimé la conviction de tous que la guerre n'aura pas lieu*. The construction may be considered as appositional.

One of the most apparent but purely superficial differences between the French noun clauses of the types described and the corresponding English forms is the possibility, in English, of omitting the conjunction *that*: *I know he won't come*. When a noun clause in English is preceded by a preposition, the clause proper is introduced by *what*: *we shall account for what we did*; whereas French uses a relative construction: *à ce que*, *de ce que*, etc. The much greater difficulties arising from the choice of mood will be dealt with later in this study.

So-called indirect questions represent a particular type of noun clause functioning as object complement. Such noun clauses may be introduced by various interrogative words: 1) *combien*, *quant*, *où*, *lequel*, *quel*, *qui*; 2) *pourquoi*, *comment*; 3) *quoi*. The combinatory behavior of these words is the same as that found in direct questions: those in group 1 may occur alone or be preceded by a preposition; those in group 2 are never preceded by a preposition; number 3 is always preceded by a preposition. *Si* is used in indirect questions to replace the yes-or-no interrogative form *est-ce que*.

Direct Question	Indirect Question
Qui cherchez-vous?	Dîtes-moi qui vous cherchez.
Combien me devez-vous?	Je me demande combien vous me devez.
Quel est le titre du livre?	J'aimerais savoir quel est le titre du livr
Est-ce qu'il vient?	Dîtes-moi s'il vient.

Avec quoi écrivez-vous?	Montrez-moi avec quoi vous écrivez.
Quand viendra-t-il?	Je voudrais savoir quand il viendra.

The interrogative *que* (*qu'est-ce que*, *qu'est-ce qui*) cannot figure as such in an indirect question, for *que* and *qu'est-ce que*, the relative construction *ce que* is substituted, and for *qu'est-ce qui*, *ce qui* is substituted.

Que voulez-vous?	Dîtes-moi ce que vous voulez.
Qu'est-ce qui vous gêne?	Dîtes-moi ce qui vous gêne.

The word order of indirect questions is never characterized by the inversion found in direct questions. When inversion occurs, it is comparable to the stylistic inversion found in subordinate clauses. In indirect questions, the interrogative marker *est-ce que* is never employed, at least not in standard speech.

III. THE FRENCH VERB

The verb is the second major type of word-class. Like the noun class it has its own characteristics. The verb may serve as a nucleus for a verbal phrase, just as the substantive serves as the nucleus of the noun phrase. A noun phrase may be joined to such a verbal nucleus in the spoken chain in various ways and with various functions. In many cases, the verbal phrase coincides with the sentence. Of the two types, noun and verb, the verb has a greater number and variety of forms. At the same time, verb forms of certain types may fill various grammatical functions which are more usually represented by noun phrases or by adjectives. Thus the infinitive form of the verb often occurs in the same functional contexts as noun phrases and the verbal forms called participles may occur in the same context as adjectives or even adverbs. Finally, a verb form by itself may, in certain cases, constitute a complete, self-sufficient sentence requiring no reference to the context in which the utterance is made. This is the case notably for the imperative form of the verb: _viens_, _jouez_, _parlons_. Nominal forms, on the contrary, when occurring alone (_feu_! _silence_! _merci_! _formidable, ton truc_!) cannot generally be considered complete self-sufficient sentences. For these various reasons, the verb manifests itself as more basic to clause and sentence structure than the noun and the noun phrase. In English, the situation is, generally speaking, the same as in French.

The verb may be defined and delimited by two types of criteria: 1) the manner in which it relates to other terms in any given construction, and 2) its forms or morphology. The French verb belongs to the class of variable words. While, in the noun system, distinctions of gender and number are marked, in the verb the grammatical distinctions marked by difference of form are those of number and person, tense, aspect, mood, and voice.

A. *Relation with subject*.

When a verb form functions in a clause or sentence as the predicate (or the nucleus of the predicate) it generally stands in relation with a word or phrase which acts as subject, and which is, most frequently though not necessarily, nominal in nature. The noun-verb construction thus constitutes the canonical form of this subject-predicate relation: *le bébé* / *pleure*; *Father* / *laughed* are simple examples of this construction. The predicate may contain as its nucleus a more complex verb form: *l'enfant* / *a été retrouvé*.

Not all verb forms necessarily combine with a word or phrase which functions as their subject. The imperative forms of the verb, as already mentioned, are not accompanied by an element functioning as subject. The infinitive and participle forms, in the vast majority of contexts do not normally enter into subject-predicate relations with some other element, but this is not impossible: *son frère* / *marié, elle était désormais libre*. When they do, it is not possible to substitute an agglutinated subject pronoun for the subject word; compare: *lui marié* and *il est marié*. This latter possibility is limited to the so-called "finite" forms of the verb; the verbal forms which are necessarily accompanied by a word or phrase with subject function and which have specifically verbal functions as distinct from the infinitive and the participle forms which occur frequently in the same functional contexts as nouns. The relation between a word or phrase functioning as subject and a verb form serving as the nucleus of a predicate is indicated on the grammatical level by: 1) position; 2) morphological variations in form.

1. Subject position.

The subject normally precedes the verb form functioning as predicate. It is position that permits the differentiation between: Paul voit Jean and Jean voit Paul. In each case the word preceding the verb form is subject, position in this particular case being the sole mark of the subject function. This order holds normally for declarative sentences and for interrogations marked by est-ce que. By its frequency and by the marked tendency of French speakers to avoid inversion whenever possible, this order may be taken as basic. Occasionally, however, the subject word or group may occur after the verb predicate; grammarians speak, in this case, of inversion.

Inversion may belong to more than one functional type. 1) It may occur as a marker or accompanying feature of interrogation (we leave aside here the function of intonation, which is a permanent feature), but it may also occur in non-interrogative contexts. In this latter case, its occurrence is partly stylistic, partly combinatory in nature. Formally speaking, inversion may appear in one of several different forms: when the subject of the verb is an anaphoric or a personal pronoun or ce with the verb être, this pronoun immediately follows the personal verb form and is agglutinated to it: vient-il? est-ce le moment? 2) When the subject of the verb is a noun phrase there are two different possibilities. Either the subject may be placed after the verb forms: Oui, dit le monsieur; or the noun phrase subject may precede the verb but an anaphoric pronoun agreeing in gender and number with the subject immediately follows the verb and is agglutinated to it as in 1): Mon père, viendra-t-il? As interrogation will be dealt with elsewhere (see Section IIIC), only non-interrogative inversion will be dealt with here.

Inversion is often required in parenthetical expressions. It is especially frequent in written style. A pronoun subject is agglutinated to the verb and a noun phrase subject is simply placed after the verb: Viens, dit le policier. Je vous suis, répondit-il. However, when such speaker indications precede a quotation, etc., the normal non-inverted order is used. This is generally preferred in spoken French: Il dit, viens. However, even in written style, inversion with parenthetical expressions in the first person singular tends to be avoided: je crois, je suppose, je pense.

When the subject phrase is relatively long and the sentence contains no direct object, an indirect object complement (i.e. introduced by a preposition) or sometimes an adverb may be placed in sentence-initial position and the subject placed after the verb: A ses difficultés, s'ajoutent toutes sortes d'ennuis personnels; au roi bien-aimé succéda un tyran détesté. This construction is a stylistic variant of the non-inverted order, most often used for emphasis.

A predicate adjective construction may be treated in like manner: nombreux sont les hommes qui rêvent de gloire et de richesse. Such sentences belong mainly to literary language. In some instances --

but only with a few verbs which have become fixed in this type of construction -- the verb may be found in initial position: *suit une liste de malfaçons* (*a list* ... *follows*); *soit un angle de 30°* (*given: an angle of 30°*).

Inversion in relative clauses has already been discussed. It will be recalled that inversion here has stylistic value, the subject often being placed after the verb: 1) when there is no direct object expressed in the relative clause (and, generally, no confusion possible between the functions of subject and direct object), and 2) when the subject phrase is longer than the predicate phrase. These same principles may apply equally to other types of conjunctive construction, especially in literary style: *avant que ne parût le livre incriminé* -- *avant que le livre incriminé ne parût*; *quelles que soient vos raisons* (likewise, *quelque* ... *que*, *si* ... *que*, etc.). When the subject is a personal or anaphoric pronoun, however, this inversion does not occur.

After certain adverbial expressions, such as: *à peine*, *aussi*, *ainsi*, *du moins*, *encore*, *peut-être*, *sans doute*, inversion occurs as a variant of non-inverted order, particularly in literary style. The inversion in this case is of the type used in interrogation, i.e., when the subject is a noun phrase, it retains its place before the verb, but an agglutinated pronoun agreeing with this subject is placed after the verb: *peut-être son père pourra-t-il nous aider*, or *peut-être son père pourra nous aider* (cf. *hardly had he opened the door, when* ...).

It may be noted that some personal verb forms never occur in inversion. The first person present indicative forms: *parlé-je*, *finis-je*, *bois-je*, etc., are hardly ever used. Only first person forms ending in /ę/, written -ai, -ais, are tolerated: dirais-je, disais-je, etc.

The above examples do not exhaust contexts in which non-interrogative inversion may occur. The written language, which retains more archaic features than the spoken language, makes freer use of inversions, many of which have completely disappeared in oral style.

2. Agreement with subject.

Position rarely serves as the only mark of the relationship between a subject and a verb form functioning as predicate. Morphological variations of form also play a considerable role. The verb form agrees in number and person with its subject. A noun phrase subject characterized by singular number requires a verb form (third person) that is singular; mon frère peint. Subjects which do not have a substantive nucleus and are thus not endowed with number and gender features also require the third person singular form of the verb. A noun phrase subject characterized by plural number, or several coordinated singular noun phrases generally require the plural form of the verb: mes frères peignent -- mon frère et ma soeur peignent. The expansion of an either-or relation does not necessarily exclude the plural. Sometimes there is a double possibility, as, for example, with a construction of the type: noun phrase + de + noun phrase, in which the first noun phrase may be taken either as a quantifier or as the core term of the group: Une foule d'étudiants ont (or a) pénétré dans la salle. (See above: Quantifiers and quantifiers as noun phrase substitutes.) The pronoun ce, which normally requires singular agreement of the verb, may agree in number with a plural predicative noun phrase: ce sont eux (but *not* *sont-ce eux*?). However, *c'est eux* is also possible. In the literary language especially, certain rules of agreement are rather delicate and complex, but as they are more a matter of style than of grammar they need not concern us here.

In spoken French, the expression of agreement in number in the verb form is, actually, intermittent in nature, and depends upon the particular type of verb and upon the category (tense, mood, etc.). Thus, with a verb of the *parler* class, there is no distinction for the third person: *l'enfant parle* -- *les enfants parlent*, both forms being pronounced /parl/. With other types of verbs a difference exists: *l'enfant dort* /dǫr/ -- *les enfants dorment* /dǫrm/. In the first and second persons, however, the number distinction is always clearly marked, either by a distinction between absence vs. presence of a desinence: *tu parles* /parl/ -- *vous parlez* /parlẹ/ or by differences of desinence: *j'irai* /irę/ -- *nous irons* /irõ/, etc. These latter kinds of differences serve at the same time to mark distinctions of person.

In English the verb system marks number agreement only between the third person singular and the third person plural of the present tense: *he comes* -- *they come*. In French the variations with respect to the number feature are more frequent, especially in the written language, for, as is well known, French spelling makes many distinctions which have no counterpart in speech.

The French verb form also agrees in person with its subject. French, like English, distinguishes three persons: the first person -- the speaker or including the speaker, *je* -- *nous*; the second person -- the interlocutor or including the interlocutor, but excluding the speaker, *tu* -- *vous*; the third person, *on*, noun phrases, and their substitutes, clauses, infinitives, all others. The agreement with the verb is normally made according to this distribution: *Paul et moi* = *nous*, *Paul et toi* or *vous* = *vous*. However, *on* always takes a third person verb whatever person is represented by the pronoun (see: the personal pronouns). The only persons constantly marked in the verb are the first and second person plurals, marked by the endings -*ons* /õ/ and -*ez* /ẹ/: *parlons* -- *parlez*. All other person distinctions in the verb form are intermittent. The future tense forms of the verb show a greater number of person distinctions than the present tense forms. Further, some distinctions may exist in writing, but not in speech. The principal bearer of the mark of person is the personal pronoun rather than the verb form. The two -- pronoun and verb ending -- may, however, be simultaneously present in the utterance: *nous parlons*. One verb ending generally serves for the expression of both the number and person features.

One frequently occurring and troublesome case of agreement in person and number for both English learners of French and French children is that required in the emphatic expression: *c'est* ... *qui* ... . The verb form of the clause introduced by *qui* agrees in person and number with the antecedent of *qui*, quite in accord with the rules of French agreement. This verb form is not necessarily a third person form: *c'est moi qui suis le responsable*; *c'est vous qui avez causé l'accident*; *ce sont eux* (or, *ces gens-là*) *qui ont le mieux réussi*, etc. Any of the personal pronoun forms may occur here, and they require the appropriate verb form.

In conclusion, the ties between a verb form and the element or elements which serve as its subject are from a purely descriptive standpoint manifold, complex and variable, and are marked, in a given situation, by one or more features of the types described above. The number of distinctions made in writing is considerably greater than that made in speech.

B. Verb complements.

Besides the above relation, a verb form may combine with various kinds of complements. The distinction between the subject, and the predicate of which the verb is the nucleus, is a primary division. The relation between the verb and its complements is on another plane. The phrase of which the verb is the nucleus comprises not only the verb form but also its various complements, which are subordinate to this nucleus. In many respects, therefore, the complement relation is more characteristic of the verb than the subject relation. One of the major criteria for identifying forms such as the infinitive and the participles as verb forms is based precisely upon the complements they combine with and the manner in which they combine with them: il faut jouer cette pièce souvent; nous jouons cette pièce souvent.

From the point of view of language learning the study of the relation between the verb and its complements is of primary importance. If the rules which govern the combination of the verb with the subject may be reduced to a few simple rules having general validity, the same is not true of the relations of the verb to its various complements. It is extremely important that the learner begin early to handle these various complements correctly without interference from patterns of his English mother tongue. To this end, complements should be learned along with the verb form.

The vast majority of French verbs may occur without any kind of complement: mon fils joue, il pleut, nous regardons, etc. However, the verb form usually combines with one or more complements. These may be of several functionally different types. The most general type applying to all verbs and verbal constructions (i.e. passive, reflexive, etc.) is the circumstantial complement, often termed the adverbial complement. In its simplest form this type of complement is represented by the adverb.

In addition to this first kind of complement there are also the object complements. These are usually subdivided into two categories: those called direct objects which are joined directly to the verb; and those called indirect objects which are joined to the verb by means of a preposition. Direct object: Il regarde les enfants; Indirect object: Il vaque à ses occupations; Il nuit à nos intérêts. Verbs which take a direct object complement are called transitive verbs. Verbs which do not are called intransitive verbs.

The various types of complements do not exclude each other. However, the compatibility of the verbs of the language with one or several of these complements is variable. Some verbs may take all three kinds: Depuis des années il donne de l'argent à son père. Here the complements are, in order, circumstantial, direct object, indirect object. Other verbs may take only two sorts, generally circumstantial and either direct or indirect: Il obéit toujours à son père. Still other verbs may admit only circumstantial complements. The presence of a complement is rarely a grammatical obligation, for verbs may appear without any complement accompanying them. Many verbs may take more than one type of construction: cf. enseigner le français -- enseigner aux élèves. In this particular case, the two may be combined: enseigner le français aux élèves: to teach French -- to teach the students. In most cases, differences in the type of complement combining with the verb correspond to differences of meaning: discuter quelque chose -- discuter de quelque chose; douter quelque chose -- douter de quelque chose; compter les élèves -- compter sur quelqu'un; il regarde son argent -- il regarde à son argent; ils jouent la pièce -- ils jouent au tennis -- ils jouent du violon, etc.

1. Direct object complement.

The direct object complement is a nominal-type object joined to the verb form by juxtaposition. In main clauses it usually directly follows the verb to which it is subordinate, but often other verb modifiers -- adverbs or other complements -- may be placed between the direct object complement and the verb form. The position of this complement may be influenced by stylistic criteria. In a sequence of several complements, the tendency in French is to place the shorter one or ones first. When the direct object is an agglutinated pronoun, it precedes the verb form except when this verb form is in the imperative and is not accompanied by a negative construction (ne ... pas, ne ... rien, etc.). When, for purposes of emphasis, the direct object is set apart by pauses from the clause in which it functions, it is necessary to add an agglutinated pronoun to represent it: Cet homme, je le connais bien.

To verbs taking a direct object, it is usual to apply the term transitive. However, many modern grammarians employ the term transitive in a less restrictive sense and distinguish between direct transitive and *indirect transitive* verbs, the direct transitives being those taking a direct object, and the indirect transitives being those whose object complement is introduced by a preposition. It is considered that in pairs of sentences such as: *il a lésé sa famille* -- *il a nui à sa famille*, transitivity is present in both cases. In the second example, its expression requires a preposition. In traditional terminology, these latter verbal complements are referred to as indirect objects. The possibility for direct transitive constructions to be transformed into so-called passive constructions, i.e. *il a tué le loup* -- *le loup a été tué par lui*, will be discussed below (see: Reflexive and Passive Constructions).

2. *Indirect object complement*.

The indirect object complements are introduced by a preposition, generally *à* or *de*, but also sometimes *pour* and *sur*: *il obéit à son père*; *il a donné l'argent au commerçant*; *il tient de son père*; *il appuie sur la gachette*; *il règne sur un grand pays*. If the difference between a direct and an indirect object is marked, formally speaking, by the presence or the absence of a preposition introducing the complement, the indirect object and the circumstantial complement may be confused, since the latter is very often introduced by a preposition when a noun phrase enters its composition. For this reason there are many grammarians who take this formal resemblance as primary and do not separate these two kinds of objects. It is useful, however, to distinguish between constructions where the preposition is imposed by the verb or verbal construction, that is, where the speaker has no choice, as in: *je me souviens de cette histoire*, *cela nuira à son autorité*, etc.; and cases where there exists a possibility of choice. In the above examples, *de* in the first sentence and *à* in the second cannot be replaced by another preposition. Likewise, if the sentences *Je compte sur cette place* -- *Je m'assois sur la chaise* are compared, it is seen that *sur* in the first example cannot be replaced by another preposition, whereas in the second example, it might be replaced by *sous*, *à côté de*, etc. To this first type also belong constructions in which the verb and the following preposition form an inseparable, meaningful unit (cf. *il vient de voir ses amis* -- *he has just seen his friends*; *il vient à voir ses amis* -- *he happens to see his friends*; *il vient voir ses amis* -- *he comes to see his friends*).

3. *Circumstantial complements.*

Complements which are neither direct objects nor indirect objects are classed collectively as circumstantial complements. The circumstantial complement of the simplest type is the adverb, which is joined to the verb form directly without the use of a preposition: *il court vite*; *il travaille rapidement*. Prepositions and adverbial conjunctions have been termed "transitive adverbs", that is, adverbs followed by a complement -- substantive or noun phrase, pronoun, infinitive, etc.: *il travaille avec rapidité*; *il travaille sans se fatiguer*; *en attendant, lisons*; *je le ferai, sans qu'il le sache*. Indeed, both types are closely related in function and also frequently in form to the adverb. Circumstantial complements which occur without being introduced by a preposition are often quantifiers: *il pèse dix kilos* (cf. circumstantial -- *il pèse lourd*; direct object -- *il pèse les tomates*). Expressions of time also occur: *il travaille le matin*.

There is one particular kind of complement of very frequent occurrence in French which is not introduced by a preposition, and whose classification is difficult, for it may sometimes be taken as the complement of a noun phrase, sometimes as a circumstantial complement (i.e. subordinate to a verbal nucleus): *l'alpiniste grimpait sur la paroi avec agilité, son sac sur le dos, son piolet et des pitons à la main*; *cigarette à la bouche, l'air détendu, le vieux marin nous racontait ses aventures*; *il se tenait là les mains tremblantes*. This kind of descriptive complement is very frequently employed in French. It corresponds most often to an English prepositional phrase introduced by *with* (*The mountain climber* ... *with his rucksack on his back, and his ice axe in his hand* ...) or appears without any preposition as in French. Various other types of words and constructions may form adverbial complements in this same way. Thus with an adjective: *ils sont rentrés les mains vides*, or with a participle: *les circonstances aidant, il réussira dans son entreprise*; *la partie gagnée, notre équipe pouvait désormais envisager l'avenir avec confiance*. These participial constructions belong essentially to the literary language.

A complement introduced by *par* and used with passive constructions to designate the agent (*il a été tué par un inconnu*) is equally a circumstantial complement. Generally, the circumstantial complements may occupy more varied positions in the sentence than the other kinds of complements. They may sometimes modify the verb nucleus alone, sometimes the entire predicate, sometimes the entire clause or sentence.

In this respect several particular uses of *quelque* deserve mention: 1) as a noun modifier or as an adjectival or adverbial modifier, followed by a relative clause whose verb form is obligatorily a subjunctive; 2) as a predicative. The entire expression so constituted has the syntactic functions of a circumstantial complement.

When employed as a noun modifier, quelque agrees in gender and number with the substantive modified: quelques raisons que vous invoquiez, je suis obligé de sévir; quelques précautions que vous preniez, vous n'êtes pas assuré de réussir; quelques arguments que vous présentiez, vous n'aurez aucune chance de gagner.

Quelque may also modify an adjective or an adverb. In this case, quelque remains invariable (in spelling): quelque aimable qu'il soit, il n'arrivera pas à vaincre leur méfiance; quelque aimablement que vous vous conduisiez, vous n'arriverez pas à ... . When the word modified is an adjective or an adverb, quelque may be replaced without any appreciable difference in meaning, by si: si aimable qu'il soit; or by tout: tout aimable qu'il est; in this latter case, the verb of the following clause requires the indicative mood.

Quelque may also be constructed predicatively with a noun phrase; the clause following contains a subjunctive form of the verb être. In this context, quelque is written as two words: quel que, the part quel being treated like the variable interrogative specifier quel, that is, in its written form it agrees in gender and number with the noun phrase following the verb être: quelles que soient les raisons que vous invoquiez, vous n'aurez pas gain de cause; quelle que soit votre note, vous serez admis à passer dans la classe supérieure.

These constructions are parallel structurally to quoi que (whatever) and to qui que (whoever), and also to òu que (wherever), all followed by the subjunctive. Où que is relatively rare; it is often replaced by partout où followed by a verb in the indicative mood.

All these constructions correspond more or less to various English indefinite pronouns, compound forms ending in -ever; whatever, however, etc. The forms with quelque are somewhat more restricted in use, however, for English whatever occurs sometimes in contexts where the French terms described above do not occur: he lost whatever money he had -- il a perdu tout l'argent qu'il avait.

The various kinds of verb complements are not at all on the same plane. The circumstantial (or adverbial) complements are the most frequent and the least restricted in use. More than one may occur with any given verb. The object complements, on the other hand, are more restricted. They cannot occur with all verbs and, when of the same type, do not occur in multiples except when joined in a relation of coordination.

4. Idiomatic expressions.

A special case occurs in French in expressions of the type: demander grâce; avoir faim; faire honneur (à quelqu'un); faire fête (à quelqu'un); tenir tête (à quelqu'un). In these expressions, a word -- usually a substantive -- occurs without any kind of specifier and, generally, without noun-modifying words: exceptions, j'ai très faim -- j'ai grand faim; il me fait grand honneur, etc. These are direct objects reduced to their barest essentials; i.e. a substantive word. Some of these expressions, like tenir tête are fixed, invariable constructions, but many others are related to the usual specified kind of noun phrase occurring as direct object. It is this latter type which occurs when the object word is modified: avoir une faim insatiable; demander une grâce à quelqu'un. These unspecified constructions have some resemblance to English expressions of the type: to make fun of (someone).

Adjectives may also occur in such expressions. The adjective qualifying word of the eventual object complement alone is expressed: parier gros; voir juste; vendre cher; jouer long (tennis expression). Such expressions may be classed either as idioms or as adverbial complements, the adjectives so used being invariable, and circumstantial.

5. Problems of translation.

In English, the direct object is, as in French, juxtaposed to the verb form. The difficulties when passing from one language to the other do not lie in the notion of direct object, but rather in the fact that what is expressed as a direct object in French may not be paralleled in English: the boy obeyed his father; le jeune homme a obéi à son père. The manner in which a particular complement is joined to the verb in French must be learned along with the meaning of the verb.

The indirect object also poses a number of difficult problems. In English the indirect object may, as in French, be introduced by a preposition: he spoke to the man; il a parlé à cet homme. The difficulties here are caused by the fact that often the French and English prepositions do not correspond in meaning (cela dépend de vous; that depends on you), or, as we have seen, that in one of the languages a direct object construction may be used where the other language has an indirect object construction: we looked at him— nous l'avons regardé; wait for him -- attends-le; press the button -- appuie sur le bouton.

Furthermore, in English, when there are two objects, the indirect object is not necessarily preceded by a preposition. *He sent his children a gift*. In French, this sort of construction does not exist: *il a envoyé un cadeau à ses enfants*. Two objects both without a preposition only exist in French when the two objects stand in a predicative relation to each other: *on a élu M. X président*.

A particular kind of predicative complement occurs only with certain verbs, especially *être*, *sembler*, *paraître*, etc. In this context, words of several different classes, both inflected and uninflected, may occur: nouns (specified or not), adjectives, pronouns, adverbs, adverbial complements and the past participle: *cet homme est mon patron*; *il est beau*; *c'est lui*; *c'est bien*; *il est à Paris*; *il est fatigué*. When an adjective or other inflected word is used as predicate, it agrees with the subject in gender and number: *cette femme est intelligente*. In: *elle est morte vieille*, we see a case of one predicative complement (an adjective) being juxtaposed and subordinated to another (a past participle).

The distinction between an adjective and an adverb used as predicate is not always clear. When the adjective shows agreement it is a predicate; when it does not agree, the complement is generally held to be adverbial in nature (cf. *cette bière semble mauvaise*, but *la bière sent mauvais*).

C. Interrogation in French.

The constant feature in the expression of interrogation in French is intonation, both yes-or-no interrogative utterances and interrogations requesting information (containing interrogative words such as:

que, qui, quand, pourquoi, etc.). Intonation plays a prominent rôle which has already been dealt with in the study of French phonology. Here will be discussed essentially the various grammatical elements entering into interrogative sentences.

Questions asking for a yes-or-no answer may occur with normal (i.e. non-inverted) or with inverted word order. When normal word order is employed, the sole interrogative marker may be intonation: tu viens? les élèves suivent bien?, etc. Pronounced with a rising intonation, these are recognized unequivocally as interrogative sentences. They are very frequent in speech, but it must be remembered that they require on the part of the speaker an intonation pattern readily recognized by French hearers as interrogative. This is not always the case for foreign speakers of French. Such interrogative sentences may also have a broken normal form: ces élèves, ils suivent bien?; ils suivent bien, ces élèves.

There also exists in French the interrogative marker est-ce que which serves to introduce an interrogative utterance. This marker is followed by the uninverted word order: est-ce que votre père vous permet de sortir? -- est-ce que nous pourrons vous aider? The use of est-ce que is likewise very frequent in speech, but also occurs in written style. As this marker occurs in addition to the intonation characteristic of interrogation, it very clearly marks the interrogative intent. For English speakers whose interrogative intonation pattern in French may be faulty, the use of est-ce que is recommended.

Interrogation may also have inversion as a marker, complementing the intonation feature. Est-ce que and inversion are mutually exclusive.

Formally, it is necessary to distinguish two types: 1) when the subject of the sentence is an agglutinated pronoun; 2) when the subject is other than an agglutinated pronoun.

When the subject is a personal or anaphoric pronoun (or *ce* occurring with a form of the verb *être*), this pronoun is placed immediately after the verb form taking the marks of person and number: *As-tu vu mon frère*? *Viendra-t-il ce soir*? *Est-ce possible*? *Savez-vous vos leçons*? When the third person singular form of the verb does not end in *-t* or *-d* (i.e. from the standpoint of speech, has no linking form in /t/), a *-t-* /t/ is intercalated between such a verb form and the following *il* or *elle*: *parle-t-il*? /parltil/, but *est-il*? /ętil/, verb form ending in *-t*.* Theoretically, inversion is possible in all cases. However, there is a tendency to avoid inversion in a number of contexts, especially in speech; for instance, when the subject pronoun is *je*, only a small number of verbs occur with inversion: *ai-je*, *dois-je*, *puis-je*, *sais-je*, *dis-je*, *vois-je*, *vais-je*, *fais-je*; *Que dois-je faire*? *Puis-je aider*? *Que vois-je apparaître*? *Que sais-je*?; but *not* *parlé-je*, *perds-je*, etc. Likewise, in constructions felt to be stylistically heavy or unharmonious to French ears, when there are accumulations of agglutinated pronouns, especially with multisyllabic verbs of relatively infrequent occurrence, or when the grammatical analysis of such groups becomes complicated, or when puns or "cacophony" result: *Ne vous améliorerez-vous pas*? *Les découragerons-nous*? *L'alimente-t-il*?, etc. Such sentences are grammatically correct, but they tend to be avoided and replaced by *est-ce que* or else by lexical means (choice of words). No general rules can be formulated, for in this stylistic domain individual factors intervene.

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* In speech generally considered substandard, this element combined with the pronoun *il* pronounced /i/, has given rise to an interrogative marker /ti/ written *-t-il* or *ti*: *C'est-il bon*? *Vous aimez ti le vin*? The form *voilà-t-il*, in particular has penetrated even into literary texts. This use of *-t-il* /ti/ is not recommended within the frame of standard French.

When the subject is other than an agglutinated pronoun -- most usually a noun phrase -- the inversion has a somewhat different form. The subject is placed before the verb as in the non-inverted order, but an anaphoric pronoun agreeing in gender and number with this noun phrase is attached to, and immediately follows, the verb form taking the person and number marks: *La conférence sera-t-elle un échec? Les impôts seront-ils augmentés cette année*? This interrogative structure is very widely employed in written style. In speech it tends to to be replaced by other purely intonational types. When it is used, it generally takes a variant form, with a pause occurring between the noun phrase subject and the rest of the sentence: *Ton frère, a-t-il retrouvé son porte-feuille*? or *A-t-il retrouvé son porte-feuille, ton frère*? These are emphatic forms; the point of highest intonational pitch is the term central to the interrogation. In the sentences cited, it may be either *frère* or *porte-feuille*.

Interrogations requesting information.

In addition to the feature of intonation, an interrogation is characterized by the presence of an interrogative word (many of which such words also occur with non-interrogative function and meaning). The point of highest intonation generally falls on the interrogative word. The mutually exclusive features of inversion and the interrogative marker *est-ce que* may also figure in such interrogative utterances.

The interrogative words are: *qui*, *que* (*quoi*), *quand*, *où*, *pourquoi*, *combien*, *quel*, *lequel*; compound forms, *qu'est-ce que*, *qui est-ce que*, *qui est-ce qui*, *qui est-ce que*, (the various other words given combine also with *est-ce-que*); preposition + *qui*, *quoi*, *où*, *quand*, *combien*, *quel*, *lequel* (*à qui*, *depuis quand*, *par où*, etc.).

In the canonical (or standard) form of this type of interrogation, the interrogative word occurs in sentence-initial position. Or, when it is part of a phrase (i.e. when preceded by a preposition or when the interrogative word has adjectival function), this phrase is sentence-initial. However, particularly in speech, other word orders are also possible.

When the interrogative word functions as the subject of the sentence, there is no particular problem. The interrogative word, whether simple or compound (*qui*, *qui est-ce qui*, *qu'est-ce qui*, *combien* = interrogative quantifier, *lequel*) precedes the verb form as with non-interrogative word order: *Qui parle*? *Qu'est-ce qui se passe*? *Lequel coûte le plus cher*?

When *que*, *qui*, *quel*, *lequel* occur with predicative function, the subject of the sentence follows the verb: *Qui est cet homme*? *Qui êtes-vous*? *Quelle sera sa punition*?, that is with type 1 inversion.

With interrogative words having functions other than those of subject or attribute, whether occurring alone or as part of a phrase, the possibilities are more varied. The particular form the inversion may take is in part dependent upon the interrogative word employed and, also, in some cases, upon the grammatical structure of the sentence.

It is possible to retain the normal word order by resorting to the use of *est-ce que* placed immediately following the interrogative word, or by using the compound forms (*qu'est-ce qui*, etc.): *Combien est-ce que le livre vous a coûté? Qui est-ce que ces personnes cherchent? Quand est-ce que vous comptez partir?*

When *est-ce que* is not employed, inversion is obligatory according to the rules of grammar of the written language. In most cases, both types of inversion are possible with a noun phrase subject (or other than agglutinated pronouns): type 1 with the subject placed after the verb, and type 2 with the subject before the verb and an agglutinated pronoun following the personal verb form. However, for *que* and *pourquoi* there are some restrictions which will be described below. When the subject word is an agglutinated pronoun, the inversion is the same as in yes-or-no questions.

When the interrogative word functions neither as direct object nor as predicative, a non-agglutinated subject word may take either type 1 or type 2 inversion: *Quand arrivera le train? Quand le train arrivera-t-il?* (*Quand est-ce que le train arrivera?*) *Quand arrivera-t-il?*; *Où est caché l'argent? Où l'argent est-il caché?* (*Où est-ce que l'argent est caché?*) *Où est-il caché?*; *Comment se présente le travail? Comment le travail se présente-t-il?* (*Comment est-ce que le travail se présente?*); *Avec qui viendra ton frère? Avec qui ton frère viendra-t-il?* (*Avec qui est-ce que ton frère viendra?*) *Avec qui viendra-t-il?*; *Sur quoi comptent* *les élèves*? *Sur quoi les élèves comptent-ils*? (*Sur quoi est-ce que les éleves comptent*?) *Sur quoi comptent-ils*?, etc.

When the verb of such interrogative sentences is followed by a noun phrase direct object complement, or when the simple interrogative form *qui* is employed with the function of direct object complement, there is a possibility of confusion between a noun phrase subject and a noun phrase direct object. In these cases, it is type 2 inversion that is required: *Quand ton frère apportera-t-il le colis*? *Combien le client paiera-t-il son véhicule*? *Qui ton père a-t-il invité*? (*Qui a invité ton père*? would be interpreted as *Who invited your father*?) When an agglutinated object pronoun replaces such a noun phrase direct object, this same type of inversion is generally retained. It is also the type of inversion required in previously defined constructions when the interrogative word has adverbial function: *Quand Monsieur Dupont est-il devenu directeur*?

The interrogative determiner *quel* occurs most often as part of a noun phrase. When the noun phrase of which this word is a member has functions other than that of subject, the various interrogative constructions indicated above are possible: *Quel cadeau désire cet enfant*? or *Quel cadeau cet enfant désire-t-il*? This latter type of inversion is necessarily employed when there is danger of ambiguity: *Quelle personne a invité votre père*? (=*Which person invited your father* or *Which person did your father invite*?). *De quel côte souffle le vent*? -- *De quel côté le vent souffle-t-il*? The verb taking a noun phrase subject and followed by a complement of direct object, calls for type 2 inversion: *Par quel moyen le plus faible espère-t-il gagner la partie*? In all the above cited examples *est-ce que* without inversion may, of course, also be employed.

Que occurs as an agglutinated interrogative word limited to either direct object or predicative function. It occurs only with type 1 inversion: *Que fait cet homme*? *Que fait-il*? (*Qu'est-ce que cet homme fait*? *Qu'est-ce qu'il fait*?)

Pourquoi, on the other hand, occurs only with type 2 inversion when the subject is a noun phrase: *Pourquoi les secours n'arrivent-t-ils pas*? *Pourquoi votre fils ne va-t-il pas à l'école*?

When the two types of inversion are equally possible, the choice of one or the other is a stylistic question depending upon rhythmic and phonetic factors. Generally speaking, of the two, type 1 inversion sounds less affected, less literary, when used in speech.

Inversion and *est-ce-que* occur both in writing and in speech. The written style resorts with relatively greater frequency to inversion and the spoken style to *est-ce que*. In the spoken language still other possibilities exist. The interrogative word may be transposed to the end of the sentence: *Vous voulez quoi*? *Vous demandez combien*? *Vous cherchez quel article*? *Il viendra quand*? In this use, inversion does not occur. The word order may also be modified for emphatic reasons: *Votre bateau, vous l'avez payé combien*? *Votre bateau, combien l'avez-vous payé*? or with *votre bateau* placed in sentence-final position. *Vos vacances, quand est-ce que vous comptez les prendre*?, etc.

In familiar spoken style especially, inversion is often avoided, even when the interrogative word occurs: initially, *Votre bateau* *combien vous l'avez payé*? *Pourquoi tu t'es levé*? *Pourquoi vous parlez en classe*?, and even *Pourquoi. ces cerises, tu ne les as pas cueillies*? In teaching French to beginning students, this interrogative type should not be taught; from the standpoint of written style it is grammatically incorrect.

In vulgar speech, *est-ce que* is often reduced to *que*, and one frequently hears uneducated people and children say: *Où que tu vas*? /uktyva/, etc., instead of *Où est-ce que tu vas*? This interrogative model is definitely substandard.

In general, if the spoken style seems to prefer non-inverted order, with or without *est-ce que*, no hard and fast rules can be established since the factors involved are individual and stylistic (rhythm, euphony, etc.).

English, too, presents inversion of the subject, but, except in a small number of cases, the inversions found in examples parallel to those encountered in French cannot be considered to coincide exactly. If in examples like: *Etes-vous malade*? -- *Are you sick*?; *Avez-vous mangé*? -- *Have you eaten*? and a limited number of other cases, there exists a word-to-word correspondence between the two languages, the presence in English interrogative sentences of the auxiliary verb *do*: *Does the man seem ill*? and the interrogative construction with inversion found with the progressive forms: *Is the man coming*? do not have close counterparts in French. On the other hand, English does not employ type 2 inversion at all.

D. *Impersonal constructions*.

It is usual in French grammar to speak of impersonal verbs. It would be more exact to speak of impersonal constructions. An impersonal construction may be defined as one in which the subject of the verb is the masculine singular pronoun form *il*, which cannot be replaced by another pronoun or subject word or phrase (e.g. a noun phrase) without at the same time changing the grammatical structure of the sentence. If function is considered, the pronoun *ce*, with the verb *être*, and *cela* (*ça*), with verbs other than *être*, may also be considered as impersonal in certain cases.

In French, only a few verbs such as *falloir* (*il faut*), *importer* (to be important), *advenir*, occur exclusively in impersonal constructions. These are properly impersonal verbs. Traditionally, however, other verbs -- particularly those expressing meteorological phenomena -- are also termed "impersonal": *il pleut*, *il tonne*, *il gèle*, etc. As these same verbs may also occur in constructions that are not impersonal (*Les balles pleuvaient de tous les côtés*; *L'orateur tonne contre les abus*; *L'eau gèle à 0° C.*), we prefer to speak here not of impersonal verbs but of impersonal constructions, the question of frequency being the only criterion which justifies the traditional label.

The impersonal constructions found in French are quite varied. Frequently they are followed by some kind of complement (a noun phrase, a noun phrase substitute, e.g. a pronoun, an infinitive) which many grammarians refer to as the *real subject* of the sentence or clause as opposed to the pronoun *il* (more rarely *ce*, *cela*) termed the grammatical or apparent subject. Such a distinction is based, in fact, upon logical rather than upon grammatical criteria. *Il*, with which the verb form agrees in person and in number, is quite definitely the subject of the sentence. What is difficult to decide is the *nature* of the complement, for it cannot simply be classed as an object complement, at least not in the same sense that *l'homme*, in *je vois l'homme*, is a direct object complement.

1. *Meteorological expressions*.

The simplest kind of impersonal construction concerns meteorological expressions. In these a number of simple verbs are used without complement: *il pleut*, *il neige*, *il grêle*, *il bruine*, *il vente*. In a number of expressions the verb *faire*, used impersonally, is followed by an adjective, an unspecified noun or a noun phrase: *il fait chaud*, *il fait froid*, *il fait beau*, *bon*, *mauvais*, *frais*, *sec*, *humide*, *doux*, *noir*, *sombre*, *obscur*, *clair*; *il fait jour*, *il fait nuit*; *il fait du vent* (more usual than *il vente*), *il fait de la pluie*, *il fait du soleil*, *il fait du brouillard*, *de l'orage*, *de la tempête*. When the word *temps* (weather) is used with an adjective, the complement following *faire* takes the form of a noun phrase: *il fait un temps sec*, *il fait un sale temps*, *il fait un temps exécrable*, *il fait un temps ensoleillé*, etc. However, *il fait beau temps*, *il fait mauvais temps* are consecrated expressions containing an unspecified noun phrase.

These impersonal constructions do not, of course, exhaust the possibilities of expressing meteorological phenomena. If it is possible to say, using other forms of impersonal constructions: *il tombe de la neige*, *de la pluie*, *des grêlons*, etc., personal constructions are also possible: *la neige tombe*, *la pluie tombe*. Besides *il fait du vent*, the expressions *il y a du vent*, *le vent se lève*, *le vent souffle fort*, are also valid. Likewise, *l'orage éclate*, *bat son plein*; *la tempête fait rage*, *gronde*, etc.

2. *Etre, sembler, etc.*

The verb *être* or a similar type of verb (*sembler*, *devenir*, *paraître*) usually followed by an adjective, sometimes by an unspecified noun, noun phrase or adverb, may enter into an impersonal construction. This construction is followed in most cases by a complement -- a clause, or an infinitive introduced by *de*: *Il est bon qu'il révise ses leçons avant l'examen*; *Il est doux de ne rien faire*; *Il devient clair qu'il ne réussira pas*; *Il devient de plus en plus difficile de circuler à Paris*. When such a predicative construction is not followed by a clause or an infinitive complement, *ce* or sometimes *cela* (*ça*) rather than *il* is used as the subject word. However, in this case, the construction in question cannot be considered to be truly impersonal in nature. *Ce* represents rather an indeterminate or non-substantive subject, which is replaceable by another word or phrase in the function of subject: *c'est bon* -- *le repas est bon*. Strict literary canons usually require *il* as subject in expressions in which a complement follows, but in more familiar style, *ce* is often employed: *C'est formidable de pouvoir partir en vacances* (but, *il est question de partir*, *il en est question*, regularly with *il*). In other expressions, such as: *c'est dommage* (*c'est dommage qu'il ait échoué à cet examen*; *c'est peu que* ...; *c'est beaucoup que* ..., the use of *ce* is usual even in the literary language.

3. *Other verbs.*

Similar impersonal constructions are also possible with other verbs followed by an infinitive or clause complement representing the "logical" subject of the verb. Both *il* and *cela* (*ça*) occur as impersonal subjects with such verbs. Very often *cela* is preferred because the form *il* might be interpreted as a personal subject (*he*): *cela me plaît de me promener sous la pluie*; *cela me gêne de prêter ma voiture*. In familiar style, *ça* is often used even when no complement follows: *ça barde* (*ça va barder*).

Impersonal constructions are also possible with intransitive verbs, with transitive verbs employed passively (*être* + past participle) and with many verbs used reflexively (*il se* ...). Such impersonal constructions are often followed by a complement-noun phrase, infinitive or clause. Often alongside such impersonal constructions, a parallel personal intransitive construction is possible, the complement of the impersonal construction corresponding to the subject of the personal construction. When a noun phrase is involved, both constructions are equally acceptable, but when a clause or an infinitive (or infinitive phrase) occur, it is the impersonal construction that is, in most cases, stylistically preferable. Intransitive verbs: *il est venu un homme* (*un homme est venu*); *il subsiste des doutes sur son compte* (*des doutes subsistent sur son compte*); *il me tarde de la revoir*; *il n'arrive pas souvent qu'on gagne à la loterie*; with a noun phrase substitute: *des accidents ici, il en arrive de temps en temps* [spoken style]; *il manque à votre exposé des exemples probants*; with passive constructions: *il a été décidé que les élèves ne doivent plus jouer au ballon pendant la récréation*; *il est interdit de marcher sur les pelouses*; *il a été commis des erreurs*; *il a été perdu une montre*; with reflexive constructions: *il se trouve qu'ils se connaissent de longue date*; *comment se fait-il que vous soyez encore la?*; *il s'est révélé que l'enfant a été enlevé par son ancienne nourrice*; *il s'est engagé alors une lutte sans merci entre les deux hommes* (*une lutte ... s'est engagée entre les deux hommes*).

Often in familiar style, but also in literary style, *cela* (*ça*) is found with some of these constructions: *ça arrive qu'on gagne à la loterie*. It may be noted that in impersonal constructions comprising intransitive verbs the complement is generally undetermined: *il est venu un homme* (i.e. determiners *ce*, *mon*, *le*, etc., do not usually occur). This is not an absolute condition with impersonal verbs, however: cf. *il me faut ce livre* -- *il me le faut*; *il me reste encore ma maison* (but *not il me la reste*). As may be deduced from some of the examples given, the other complements (indirect object and circumstantial) may enter into both the impersonal and personal constructions.

4. *Il y a*.

One very frequently employed impersonal expression is *il y a*, often termed the "morpheme of existence" (there is, there are). This expression is directly followed by a complement which it serves to introduce: *il y a des clients qui attendent*; *il y a à faire*. Like *c'est ... que* (*qui*, etc.), *il y a* may also serve as a means of underlining or emphasizing the complement.

The impersonal constructions have several evident advantages. They avoid using a clause or an infinitive phrase as sentence subject, often felt to be stylistically clumsy. Like the passive constructions, they avoid the obligatory mention of an agent. On the contrary, the term that is logically considered to be the subject is treated syntactically rather as the end point of the action expressed by the verb. As in the case of *il y a*, the complement placed after the verb receives emphasis.

English also has impersonal constructions introduced by the pronoun it: It is pleasant to take a vacation; It happens that we too are on our way to France. Divergence with respect to French occurs in those cases where English unstressed there corresponds to an impersonal construction in French: There arrived a crowd of on-lookers; There are too many people here; There was committed a great crime; Once upon a time there was a beautiful princess. In English the verb agrees in number with the following noun phrase, whereas in French the verb agrees with the subject word, il. In English the subject is placed after the verb in clauses introduced by there.

E. Voice.

It is traditional to distinguish in the French verb system (as in English) the feature of voice. In French a distinction is made between an active voice, a passive voice, and a reflexive voice. These three are not, however, on the same plane. The active voice is basic, the other two considered essentially to be derived therefrom. In any case, the categories covered by the term voice are quite heterogeneous from the point of view of their form.

1. Passive constructions.

In both English and French, simple verb forms belong to the active voice (he plays -- il joue). The so-called passive voice is a compound form, composed in both English and French by a form of the verb to be (être) followed by a past participle: He was bitten by a dog -- Il a été mordu par un chien. Though the passive construction is formally similar in both languages, there exist differences in use of these forms. Some kinds of uses of the passive are possible only in one of the two languages. Their relative frequency and importance is not the same. In many cases where English resorts to the use of the passive French often prefers active constructions with the pronoun on as subject, or reflexive constructions (see below).

From the standpoint of their form, passive constructions do not differ essentially from constructions with the verb être followed by an adjective: Ce bijou est magnifique. The past participle, along with the present participle, is one of the forms of the verb which may appear in the same contexts and with the same functions as adjectives. Following the verb être the past participle takes adjective agreement in gender and number. In many cases it is difficult to draw a sharp line between an adjective used predicatively and a passive construction, and there is a tendency among some grammarians not to separate them: Il est malade; Il est fatigué; Il est blessé. The distinction is especially difficult to make for the simple forms of the verb être: the imperfect (il était blessé) and the present (il est blessé). The usual criterion for determining whether a passive construction is involved is to turn the sentence into the active voice with quelqu'un as subject. If the sense remains essentially the same, it is a passive construction. Not all direct transitive verbs occur in passive constructions (pouvoir, valoir, avoir, etc.). On the other hand, the subject of certain passive constructions would be the indirect object of the corresponding active construction: Il a été pardonné (pardonner à quelqu'un); Il a été obéi (obéir à quelqu'un).

As in English, the object complement of an active construction (normally a direct object) functions as the subject of the passive construction. The subject of the verb used in the active voice may be rendered, in the passive construction, by a circumstantial agent complement, generally introduced by *par*, more rarely by *de*: *être aimé par* (*de*) *quelqu'un*. If the active construction: *X a tué Y* is taken as the point of departure, the passive transformation is: *Y a été tué par X*. However, a peculiarity of the passive construction is that the agent complement is not obligatory, grammatically speaking, in the sense that only the expression of the subject of the verb is a grammatical obligation in French. Passive constructions are, in fact, a means of avoiding obligatory mention of an agent. However, within the frame of the passive construction, the existence of an agent is generally implicit *even when it does not receive overt expression:* e.g., *Les chatons ont été noyés*.

Some uses of the passive voice in French and English differ. In English the indirect object of an active voice construction may be transposed to function as the subject of a passive construction. Thus, starting from: *The teacher gave the child a book* -- *Le professeur a offert un livre à l'enfant*, in French the only allowable transformation is: *Un livre a été offert à l'enfant par le professeur*. In English, however: *The boy was given a book (by the teacher)* is also possible. In French, if the agent, *the teacher*, is not mentioned, an active construction with the personal pronoun *on* as subject could be used, but the use of *on*, like the passive, implies the existence of an agent. Likewise, for indirect transitive verbs in English, he can be counted on -- in French, on pourra compter sur lui.

Expressions of the type demander grâce, tenir tête, etc., with an unspecified object cannot be transformed into passive constructions unless there exists the possibility of adjoining a specifier to such an object. In English unspecified nouns may be employed as subjects of passive constructions: to pay attention; attention was paid to my remarks: to make fun of; fun was made of them.

The passive construction in French may also combine with impersonal constructions: Il a été commis des erreurs (cf. impersonal constructions).

2. Reflexive verbs.

In both French and English, it is customary to speak of reflexive verbs in those cases where the action or process expressed by the verb is referred back, by means of an object pronoun, to the grammatical subject of the verb. However, the differences between the forms labelled reflexive in each language show considerable differences in form and in use.

In English, the feature of reflexivity does not receive expression in the verb form itself. It is marked primarily by the form of the pronoun functioning as the object of a given verb. The reflexive object pronoun is a compound form: myself, yourself, himself, itself, ourselves, yourselves, themselves, oneself; I wash myself, the boy washes himself, etc. In English, only a small number of verbs regularly take this kind of construction: e.g., to avail oneself (of something). Generally, a reflexive and a non-reflexive pronoun are equally possible in a given grammatical context: I wash myself/him—the boy washes himself/us;

we talked to him -- *we talked to ourselves*; *we spoke of him* -- *we spoke of ourselves*. As these examples show, there is no reason to set reflexive verbs apart in English as a distinct verbal class; it is a pronoun form rather than a verb form which expresses the reflexive idea.

In French, the reflexive notion also involves the use of pronoun forms, but in addition the verb conjugation is modified. Except for the third person agglutinated pronouns, it is the usual personal pronoun forms, *me*, *te*, *vous*, *nous*, which are used in reflexive constructions: *je me lave*, *tu te laves*, *nous nous lavons*, *vous vous lavez*. The third person reflexive pronoun, both singular and plural is *se*: *il se lave* (he washes himself); *les enfants se lavent*. The various plural agglutinated reflexive pronouns may also have a meaning of reciprocity (*each other*, *one another*). When it is necessary to distinguish between these meanings, compound non-agglutinated pronouns *moi-même*, *nous-mêmes*, etc., may be added to the construction to express the purely reflexive meaning, *l'un ... l'autre* to give the reciprocal meaning: *ils se lavent eux-mêmes* -- *ils se lavent l'un l'autre*. Often, however, this difference of meaning is left to the context and remains formally undifferentiated. Note that *moi-même*, etc., does not have reflexive connotations in French; it is simply an intensifying word: *j'ai lavé moi-même l'auto*; here an intensifier of *je*.

In reflexive constructions the agglutinated pronoun may represent a direct or an indirect object: direct object -- *il se lave* (cf. *il lave quelqu'un*); indirect object -- *il se nuit* (cf. *il nuit à quelqu'un*).

When reflexive verbs occur in compound tense forms, the auxiliary verb employed is être and not avoir: je me suis lavé. In such cases when the reflexive agglutinated object pronoun grammatically represents a direct object, the past participle agrees with this agglutinated pronoun in gender and number: la porte s'est ouverte, but elle s'est fait mal (cf. elle a fait mal à elle). Care must be taken with different object constructions which may occur with a given verb: elle s'est blessée (direct object) -- elle s'est blessé la jambe (indirect object), or with verbs like se rappeler where the pronoun represents an indirect object: elle s'est rappelé mon nom (cf. rappeler quelque chose à quelqu'un). This question of agreement arises much more frequently in writing than in speech.

French reflexive constructions cannot all be reduced to the simple kinds of reflexivity discussed above, and which correspond to English verbs with an object pronoun of the type myself or to a reciprocal meaning. The use of reflexive constructions is much more extensive than in English. If many verbs are parallel to the type in both form and meaning: cf. je m'habille, je me peigne, je me vois, etc., other constructions of this same formal type do not correspond in meaning to the above model. In expressions such as il se lève, il se réveille, the subject, the actor, does not act upon himself in the same sense as when "he washes himself". He does not "raise himself" as he would an unconscious person, nor does he "wake himself" in the same sense that he wakes someone. Actually, here the reflexive form indicates, in a more general way, that the process expressed by the verb is limited to the subject (i.e. does not extend to a complement different from the subject).

This more general aspect of reflexive forms becomes clearer when the subject of a reflexive construction has inanimate reference: *Les champs de blé s'étendent au loin* (*The fields stretch into the distance*); *Le ciel s'assombrit* (*The sky grows dark*); *La porte s'ouvre* (*The door opens*); *Le français s'apprend facilement* (*French is easily learned*); *Le travail se fera rapidement, sans accroc* (*The work will be done without difficulty*); *Qu'est-ce qui se portera cet hiver?* (*What will be worn this winter?* -- i.e. *What will be the fashion this winter?*); *L'eau s'écoule lentement* (*The water flows out slowly*); *La bière se boit glacée* (*Beer should be drunk very cold*), etc.

In all these examples, it is evident that there is no implication that the subject performs the process upon himself. When the subject is animate as in: *cet homme se lève*; *les paresseux ne se pressent jamais*, it is not always easy to decide whether the action is referred back to the subject or whether it is a question of an action performed by the subject upon himself.

Constructions of this kind are very frequent in French, and often do not correspond to English reflexive constructions. On the contrary, they are more often rendered in English by an intransitive verb or intransitive construction, sometimes by a passive construction, as shown by the translations of the French examples above.

Sometimes a French reflexive construction is equivalent to a passive construction, e.g. *Le château se voit de loin* -- *Le château est vu de loin*. However, reflexive and passive constructions seldom represent simple variant expressions. Reflexive constructions of the types discussed do not imply the existence of an agent. Within the framework of simple reflexive constructions the agent of the action or process expressed by the verb cannot receive grammatical expression as in a passive construction. Also, a reflexive construction, unlike a passive form, does not necessarily have "accomplished" aspect as part of its meaning: *Le travail se fait* (*is being done*) -- *Le travail est fait* (*is done*).

As we have seen, a wide range of concepts may be covered by this single type of construction. Even with the same verb, the construction may change in value from one sentence to the next: *Ce tissu délicat se lave à l'eau tiède* (*this delicate fabric should be washed in warm water*); *Cet enfant délicat se lave à l'eau tiède* (*That delicate child washes with warm water*). The first example is of the type: *la porte s'ouvre*; a fabric cannot "wash itself", someone must wash it. The second example is of the type: *les enfants se lavent*. It is the context alone which orients the meaning in a given sense. Sometimes even the context is insufficient: *Les enfants se corrigent* may have one of three possible meanings: 1) The children correct themselves, 2) The children correct each other, or 3) Children can be corrected.

A large number of verbs which occur as simple active verbs may also enter into reflexive-type constructions. The relations between the two types are rather complex. Sometimes the subject-verb relation in the reflexive construction is parallel to the simple active voice construction, sometimes to that of a passive construction: *Je vante quelque chose* -- *Je me vante de quelque chose*, but *Quelque chose m'irrite* -- *Je m'irrite de quelque chose* -- *Je suis irrité par quelque chose*. This latter type is especially frequent: *Quelque chose m'amuse* -- *Je m'amuse de quelque chose*; *Quelque chose me lasse* -- *Je me lasse de quelque chose*, etc. Often, between a simple verb form and such reflexive constructions there exists a more or less important difference of meaning: *attendre quelque chose* (*to wait for something*) -- *s'attendre à quelque chose* (*to expect something*); *douter* (*to doubt*) -- *se douter de quelque chose* (*to suspect*). Formally, these reflexive constructions are quite different from the type: *je me lave*, for the reflexive pronoun cannot generally be replaced by another personal or anaphoric pronoun (cf. on the other hand: *je me lave* -- *je le lave*). Such constructions may be considered, in many respects, as new, independent verb formations. Their internal structure is that of a limited, unique direct or indirect transitivity (i.e. the reflexive construction alone is possible). But there do exist verbs which are marginal, which seem to be astride both types: e.g. *Je me lève*, which seems quite parallel to *je le lève*, but which, unlike this latter example, can not be transposed into a passive construction. From the standpoint of their external structure, the reflexive constructions function either as simple intransitive verbs: *Les champs s'étendent au loin*; as indirect transitive verbs: *On s'occupe de lui*; *On se félicite de votre décision*; *Il s'intéresse à la linguistique*; or as direct transitive: *Je me lave les mains*; *Il s'est arraché un ongle*.

These same characteristics also apply to verbs which occur only as reflexives: *se souvenir de quelque chose*, *s'emparer de quelque chose*, *se moquer de quelque chose*, *s'évanouir* (intrans.), *se désister de quelque chose*, *s'absentir de quelque chose*, *s'écrouler* (intrans.), etc. Here the reflexive construction is completely lexicalized.

The rôle of reflexive constructions is very important in French, not only because of their extensive range of uses, but also because they place at the disposal of the speaker or writer of the language a very supple means of presenting an utterance in a way that neither the active nor the passive construction can render. Stylistically, it can form parallel sequences with active forms: il se lève, parle, discute, se fâche et s'en va, not only with respect to the unity of subject (here il), but also to that of verb tense and aspect. At the same time, the relation subject-verb may be the same as that used in corresponding passive constructions: le moteur se casse, et explose (cf. le moteur est cassé). To acquire good stylistic expression in French, it is necessary to learn, for each verb, the manner in which it may enter into reflexive constructions.

When combined with a number of verbs, such as faire, laisser, voir, etc., followed by an infinitive, the reflexive construction offers a means of transposing an indirect object complement of an active construction into the subject of a reflexive construction: Le professeur a offert un livre à l'enfant may be transposed to: L'enfant s'est vu (or s'est fait) offrir un livre par le professeur. (This is the only type of reflexive construction compatible with the expression of an agent complement.)

F. French verb morphology.

The morphology of French verbs is often presented in the frame of a traditional classification based on the ending of the infinitive: thus one distinguishes between -er verbs (donner, manger, etc.), -ir verbs (finir, dormir, etc.) and -re verbs (faire, mettre, etc.).

Another method consists in opposing verbs with first person singular present indicative without -s (je donne, je mange, etc.) to those for which this person ends in -s (je finis, je dors, je fais, je mets, etc.). Many grammarians distinguish between a finir-finissons type and a dormir-dormons type. These various methods aim at classifying the written forms of verbs and have no regard for their pronunciation.

Just as in English, the conjugation of a verb in French consists of the enumeration of a number of forms grouped according to tenses, moods and voices. Some of these, in both English and French, are "simple" forms (i.e. they are written as one word) [he] plays, [he] played, [nous] jouons, [il] jouait, and others are compound forms, made up of an "auxiliary", i.e., a conjugated simple form, followed by a non-conjugated form of the verb, an infinitive or a participle, e.g., [he] has played, [he] was playing, [it] was played, [il] a joué, [il] fut joué, [il] va jouer. Furthermore, there exist doubly compound forms made up of a conjugated auxiliary followed by a non-conjugated auxiliary and a non-conjugated form of the specific verb, e.g., [he] had been playing, [it] was being played, [il] a été joué. It is clear that in order to be able to conjugate a compound or doubly compound form, the student need only know how to conjugate the auxiliary and how to form the infinitive and participles of the verb in question. Verbal morphology proper boils down to an examination of the simple verb forms, including infinitives and participles.

1. Simple forms.

In what follows only simple verb forms will be considered, and this only from the point of view of their external aspect, disregarding at this point their uses in the process of communication. This will come later, after a presentation of how simple forms can be combined to make compound forms. In contradistinction to traditional presentations of French verb morphology, the present study will distinguish the system of contemporary spoken French and that of the written form of the language. Whereas the former knows only a single set of endings for the conjugated forms, e.g. [-õ] -*ons* for all first person plural, the latter presents several different sets, e.g. -*âmes*, -*îmes*, -*ûmes* as the endings of the first person plural of the simple past in *donnâmes*, *partîmes*, and *courûmes* respectively. Regarding spoken French, once the endings have been listed, the treatment of morphology consists in classifying the verbs according to whether they present the same stem throughout or whether the stem changes in the course of the conjugation, and how.

We shall first summarize the main morphological features of the French verb in its *written form*.

a. *Written French*.

All second person singulars end in -*s*, except in the imperative when not followed by *en* or *y*: *tu manges*, *tu pars*, *tu vends*, *manges-en*! *vas-y*! but *mange*! *va*!

All first person plurals end in -*ons*, except the verb *être* (*nous sommes*) and the simple past forms that end in -*mes*: *nous vendons*, *nous vendions*, *nous eussions*, but *nous eûmes*, *nous fîmes*, *nous donnâmes*.

All second person plurals end in -*ez* except in the simple past and in the present indicative of *être*, *faire* and *dire* where it ends in -*tes*: *vous avez*, *vous mangiez*, *vous eussiez*, but *vous fîtes*, *vous êtes*, *vous faîtes*, *vous dîtes*.

All third person plurals end in -*nt*, but more precisely in -*rent* in simple past, and -*ent* everywhere else, except in *ont*, *font*, *sont*, *vont* and in the future (e.g. *iront*): *ils furent*, *ils prirent*, *ils donnent*, *ils donnaient*, *ils donneront*.

The forms of first person and third person singular vary from one class of verbs to the other: they end either in -*e* (*je donne*, *il donne*, *je cueille*, *il cueille*) or in -*s* and -*t* respectively (*je pars*, *il part*, *je finis*, *il finit*, *je dois*, *il doit*). Note, however, that quite regularly, -*x* replaces -*s* after -*eu*- (*peux*, *je veux*), that simple pasts ending in -*a* in the third person singular, third person singular futures (e.g. *donnera*), and *il va* take no -*t* (*il alla*), and that no -*t* is written when it would follow a stem ending in -*t* or -*d* (*il met*, *il vend*). A *t* is added between hyphens after the -*e* ending of the third person singular if a subject pronoun, *il* or *on* follows immediately: *parle-t-il*? *y va-t-on*? *alla-t-il*? The -*e* ending is predictable if the stem ends in a cluster that is always followed by a vowel in French spelling such as -*ill*-, -*ffr*-, e.g. *je cueille* from *cueillir*, *je souffre* from *souffrir*. Otherwise one should remember that the -*e* ending in the present indicative is that of verbs having -*er* infinitives and -*é* past participles. The -*s* and the -*t* endings go together as a rule, except in the imperfect subjunctive (*que je fisse*, *qu'il fît*). Note that neither -*e* nor -*s*/-*t* appear in the following, *j'ai*, *il a*, all futures (*j'irai*, *il ira*), the simple pasts of -*er* verbs (*je donnai*, *il donna*). But *je vais* has -*s* where *il va* has no ending.

The imperfect indicative is marked by -*ai*- in the singular and third person plural, by -*i*- in first and second person plural, the present of the subjunctive by zero in the singular and third person plural, by -*i*- in the first and second person plural; the imperfect subjunctive by -*ass*-, -*iss*-, or -*uss*- except in the third person singular where its mark is -*â*-, -*î*-, or -*û*- (note *vinsse*, *tinsse*, *vînt*, *tînt* from *venir*, *tenir*), the future -*r*- followed by its specific set of vocalic endings and the conditional -*r*- followed by the endings of the imperfect indicative. The simple past presents -*a*-, -*â*-, -*i*-, -*î*-, or -*u*-, -*û*- before the endings, but -ai instead of -*a* in the first person singular (note *vînmes*, *fînmes*, etc.), the choice being the same as that for the imperfect subjunctive, but not necessarily the same as that for the past participle: *je cousis*, *que je cousisse*, but *cousu*.

As regards stem variations, one is referred to the next section where the verb morphology of the spoken language is dealt with.

b. *Spoken French*.

The simple past is never used in French as spoken in Paris and, generally speaking, in urban France. In the same type of usage, the imperfect subjunctive is normally avoided and replaced by the present of the same mood: *il aurait fallu qu'il vienne* instead of *il aurait fallu qu'il vînt*. Once these two tenses are done away with and only the spoken form of the language is considered, French can be said to use the same endings for all its conjugated forms. Only some of its non-conjugated forms, the infinitive and the past participle, are characterized by variable endings: /-ẹ/ or /-r/ for the infinitive (/ęm-ẹ/, /parti-r/, /plφvua-r/, /prã̃d-r/); /-ẹ/, /y/, or zero for the past participle. The present participle always ends in /-ã/.

If we call "endings" any segment which follows the stem and remember there is only one present, one imperfect, and one simple subjunctive in spoken French, we may list French verbal endings as follows:

present and subjunctive singular 1 2 3, plural 3, imperative singular	zero
present and imperative plural 1	/-õ/
present and imperative plural 2	/-ẹ/
imperfect singular 1 2 3, plural 3	/-ę/
imperfect and subjunctive plural 1	/-iõ/
imperfect and subjunctive plural 2	/-iẹ/
future singular 1	/-rę/
future singular 2 3	/-ra/
future plural 1 3	/-rõ/
future plural 2	/-rẹ/
conditional	/-r/ + imperfect endings

All French verbs are conjugated by adding the preceding endings to a stem. In isolated cases such as vous faites /fęt/, vous dites /dit/, nous sommes /sǫm/, vous êtes /ęt/, there is no real basis, in the spoken language, for an analysis into stem + ending. Most French verbs have the same stem throughout the conjugation. Spelling variations such as placez/plaçons, mangez/mangeons are, of course, irrelevant here. The appearance or disappearance of a so-called mute e is automatic and should not be recorded in a phonological transcription: /sufl-ra/ soufflera, pronounced [sufləra], results from the combination of /sufl-/ + /-ra/.

Most single stem verbs have infinitives and past participles in /-ẹ/. The few exceptions are verbs whose stem ends in /-y/ or /-i/ such as conclure, inclure, rire, sourire and whose infinitive is in /-r/ and past participle in zero.

Among verbs with /-ẹ/ in the infinitive and past participle, some have stem final /-j-/ before a vocalic ending, but no /-j-/ before a consonant: /apyij-ŏ/ appuyons, but /apyi/ appuie, /nętuaj-ŏ/ nettoyons, but /nętua/ nettoie; the alternation is not automatic as shown by /ęgyij-ŏ/ aiguillons, but /ęgyij/ aiguille from aiguiller. The largest two-stem class among them is, however, the one where /-ę-/ alternates with zero (mute e) before vocalic endings; e.g., /il žęt/ il jette, but /nu žt-ŏ/ nous jetons; this alternation is by no means automatic. In other words, every single -er verb with /-ę-/ as the last vowel of the stem does not drop it before a following vowel of the ending, as shown by /il sęl/ il cèle, /nu sl-ŏ/ nous celons as apposed to /il sęl/ il selle or il scelle, /nu sęl-ŏ/ nous sellons or nous scellons.

Most verbs whose infinitive form does not end in /-ẹ/, but in /-r/, have a full stem, used before a vocalic ending and in the third person plural of the present, and a short stem, used in the singular of the present: /vuz ẹkriv-ẹ/ vous écrivez, /ilz ẹkriv/ ils écrivent, but /il ẹkri/ il écrit. Among these, several varieties should be distinguished:

(1) those that have the full stem before the /-r/ (consonantal) endings: /il ba/ il bat, but /il bat-ra/ il battra with the same stem as in /nu bat-ŏ/ nous battons; their past participle is normally in /-y/;

(2) those that have the short stem before the /-r/ endings: /il kyi/

il cuit, /il cyi-ra/ *il cuira* as opposed to /il kyiz/ *ils cuisent*; the past participle (non-inflected) is normally identical with the short stem: /kyi/ *cuit*; note that the /-r/ ending of the infinitive would be unpronounceable after the full stem: */kyizr/; the traditional -*ir*, -*issons* class with *finir* and many others belong here;

(3) those that insert an /-i-/ after the full stem before the /-r-/ endings and keep this /-i-/as the mark of the past participle: /il dǫr/ *il dort*, /il dǫrm/ *ils dorment*, /dǫrmi-r/ *dormir*, /dǫrmi/ *dormi*; note that, with a majority of the verbs that belong here, the addition of the /-r/ of the infinitive to either the full stem or the short stem would result in unpronounceable forms: */dǫrm-r/, */dǫr-r/;

(4) those that insert a /-d-/ after the short stem before the /-r-/ endings: /il krẽ/ *il craint*, /il kręñ/, *ils craignent*, /krẽd-r/ *craindre*; the past participle is often identical with the short stem: /krẽ/ *craint*, but *moudre* and *coudre*, which belong here, have /muly/ and /kuzy/; verbs of this type whose full stem ends in /-s/, add /-t-/ instead of /-d-/: /il kǫnę/ *il connaît*, /il kǫnęs/ *ils connaissent*, /kǫnęt-r/ *connaître*; their past participle has an /-y/ added to an extra-short stem: /kǫn-y/ *connu*.

The verbs not covered so far present either further complications or another distribution of the stems. Instances of further complications are, for example, to be found in verbs that have different stems for the present indicative and the present subjunctive, e.g., /il pø/ *il peut*, /il pyis/ *il puisse*. As a rule imperatives have the same stem as the indicative (/fę/ *fais* like [*tu*] *fais* and not like [*tu*] *fasse*), but note /sua/*sois*, /ę/ *aie*, /saš/ *sache* with the respective subjunctive stems. The present participle is normally formed from the full stem of the indicative: *pouvant*, *faisant*, but in exceptional cases from the subjunctive stem: *ayant*, *sachant* (subjunctive *ai*-, *sach*- respectively).

As in English, transitive verbs have a passive form resulting from a combination of the conjugated forms of the verb meaning "to be" with the past participle: *he is killed*, *he was killed*; *il est tué*, *il fut tué*. Just as in English, many such combinations are ambiguous: the segments *he is killed* -- *il est tué* normally mean that the man, who got killed in the past, is now dead, and they cannot be considered instances of the passive voice. The real passive would, in English, be expressed by means of *he gets killed* or *he is being killed* and, in French, through the indefinite construction with *on*: *on le tue*.

2. *Compound forms*.

As in English, the conjugated forms of the verb meaning "to have" can combine with the past participle of specific verbs to form a new series of tenses: *I have known*, *j'ai su*; *I had known*, *j'avais su*, etc. The combination of the present of the auxiliary with the past participle yield a tense often called "present perfect" in English, and designated in French as the "compound past" ("passé composé"). This terminological difference is indicative of a difference in meaning to which we shall revert below. On the formal plane on which we stand at present, there is, between the English and the French systems, an important difference: a number of intransitive verbs (verbs that do not take a direct object) use *être* instead of *avoir* as an auxiliary for the compound past: *je suis tombé* as opposed to *I have fallen*, *il est parti* where English distinguishes between *he has gone* and *he is gone*. Note the shift of auxiliaries when passing from the intransitive use in *il est monté jusqu'en-haut* to the transitive use in *il a monté l'escalier* or *il a monté le paquet*. Since intransitive verbs have no passive forms, no conflict can arise when they take *être* as an auxiliary for the "compound past".

Contemporary French makes no use of the present participle as an element of a compound tense: La Fontaine's *je me vas désaltérant*, "I am quenching my thirst" is no longer immediately understood and there is no set of verbal forms corresponding to the English combination of the conjugated forms of *to be* with the *-ing* form of the specific verb: *I am going*, etc. But French makes frequent use of a combination of the present or imperfect indicative of *aller* with the infinitive of the specific verb as an equivalent of English *I am going to ...*, *I was about to ...*: *je vais partir*, *il va se lever*, *j'allais fermer la porte quand ...*.

Matching this near future ("futur prochain") as it is called, there is in French a recent past combining the present or imperfect indicative of *venir* with the infinitive of the specific verb preceded by *de*: *il vient d'arriver*, *he (has) just arrived*; *il venait de partir quand ...*, *he had just left when ...*

Doubly compound forms appear, in French as in English, in the passive: *he has been killed*, *il a été tué*. But French has a special set where the simple conjugated forms of the verb *avoir* are followed by the past participle of the same verb and the past participle of the specific verb: *il a eu fini*, *quand il avait eu fini*. Although these forms are still frowned upon by purists, they correspond to a real need and are very frequent in daily parlance. As long as the simple past was used in spoken French, people had at their disposal an ambiguous past for a verb like *déjeûner*, namely *il déjeûna*. But when the compound past became the only expression of simple past action or state, the speaker had to use *il a déjeûné*, which was understood as a past when accompanied by some adverb like *hier* or such circumstantial complement as *vers huit heures*; but, all by itself, it had the value of a perfect: "he is through with his breakfast". *Quand il a déjeûné* is in fact nothing but a present tense, and since ordinarily a present is shifted to a past through the replacement of the conjugated form by the corresponding past participle preceded by the present of *avoir* (*je donne* > *j'ai donné*), the present *a déjeûné* becomes a past when *a* is replaced by the past participle *eu* preceded by the present of *avoir*, hence *quand j'ai eu déjeûné*. Nowadays, there is a complete set of doubly compound forms of this type: *j'avais eu déjeûné*, *j'aurai eu déjeûné*, etc.

G. *Mood*.

French distinguishes between the indicative, the imperative, and the subjunctive moods. Some grammarians also distinguish a conditional mood, but, in practice, it is advisable to consider the forms in -*rais*, etc., as a tense of the indicative.

The conditional is often considered to be a mood apart, distinct from both the indicative and the subjunctive. This classification does not hold for French. The subjunctive and the indicative belong for the most part to distinct domains. In most contexts where the subjunctive may appear the indicative cannot. The conditional, however, occurs regularly in the same contexts as indicative forms. Also, in certain cases, the lexical or grammatical context requires that the conditional be replaced by the subjunctive and this, in exactly the same way that the indicative is replaced by the subjunctive. For these reasons, it seems best not to speak of a "conditional mood" but rather consider these forms as belonging to the indicative mood.

In English it is customary in grammar books to distinguish between the indicative and the subjunctive mood. However, in present day English the distinction between the subjunctive and the indicative forms is extremely limited. Only the verb *to be* shows more than one formal distinction: indicative -- *am*, *are*, *is*; subjunctive for the three -- *be*; and for the past tense, the distinction between indicative *was*, and subjunctive, *were*. For other verbs the distinction exists only for the third person singular verb form, most often the indicative form with -*s* gives the subjunctive without -*s* (but *has* -- *have*).

The subjunctive in English is used to a greater extent in literary style than in speech, but it does occur in both. Examples: *I asked that he bring the money*, *It is urgent that he go quickly*. The subjunctive form is so employed in nominal clauses after a number of words or expressions expressing will or desire. It is also used sometimes in adverbial clauses, particularly clauses introduced by *if*: *If I were you, I would not listen to such talk*.

The subjunctive in English is in most cases formally identical with the indicative and consequently hard to identify. As a result, many speakers are inclined to treat subjunctive forms as optional variants of the corresponding indicative ones. Only the form were has wider usage, and this form is only distinct from the indicative in the first and third person singular: I were -- I was; he were -- he was.

In French, the rôle of the subjunctive is not as restricted as in English, in spite of the fact that, in many cases, its forms, as in English, are homophonous with those of the indicative. Its use is often a source of difficulty for English-speaking students of French because it does not necessarily occur in the same contexts in both languages. Corresponding to English, If I were king, with the subjunctive, French has si j'étais roi with the imperfect of the indicative.

In French, the indicative is the fundamental mood in the sense that its forms are used when there is no specific reason to use the subjunctive. Also, the indicative forms are far more varied, entailing a greater number of tense distinctions than the subjunctive. In the written language there are ten indicative forms and only four subjunctive forms, and in speech, eight and two. Note, in particular, that the subjunctive shows no formal distinction between the present and the future.

As a rule, grammarians define the subjunctive in terms of meaning. It is usually asserted that the use of the subjunctive implies a desire, a will, eventuality, unreality, etc. But a linguistic form expresses a meaning only in so far as it appears in a context where it would have been possible for the speaker to use a different form to convey a different meaning. In the case of the subjunctive, a real meaning can only be attached to it where the indicative could have been used, had the communicative intentions of the speaker been different. In the majority of cases, however, the speaker has no choice. In a given context, he may not choose between the indicative or the subjunctive: one is correct and the other is not. The various meanings attributed to the subjunctive are derived, most usually, not from the subjunctive form itself, but from the general meaning of the sentences in which it is used; that is, from the other elements of the sentence in which the subjunctive occurs.

Actually, it seems best, when presenting the French subjunctive, not to insist on whatever shades of meaning distinguish it from the indicative but rather upon the criteria which govern its appearance, for, in most contexts, the use of the subjunctive is conditioned -- that is, its occurrence is predictable from the context. Like mistakes in the gender of nouns, mistakes in the use of the subjunctive where its use is obligatory are shocking to French ears. Its use in such cases may be assimilated to a kind of agreement. But the indicative sometimes tends to replace the subjunctive even where forms of the latter mood may be expected to occur. This is especially true of the use of the so-called conditional forms (in -rais /rę/, etc.).

1. The subjunctive in independent clauses.

Generally, the subjunctive forms occur in subordinate clauses, but there are several cases in which they are found also in independent clauses which may function as complete sentences. One such use common to both the literary language and speech is found in clauses expressing an order in the third person singular or plural. In this context the clause in which the subjunctive appears, is preceded by que: qu'il vienne! This form replaces the imperative, which lacks third person forms. It is also found in expressions of wishes and in imprecations, but mostly in set phrases such as vive la France! Périssent les colonies plutôt qu'un principe! where it is often found without the introductory que. Note the use of sache, the subjunctive of savoir, in the phrase pas que je sache, and the stilted je ne sache pas que ... used in literary style in so-called conditional sentences instead of the conditional or imperfect indicative.

2. The subjunctive in subordinate clauses.

Usually, however, the subjunctive occurs in various types of subordinate clauses, relative clauses, noun clauses and circumstantial clauses. In these contexts it is useful to examine the conditions which govern the appearance of the subjunctive.

These conditions may depend upon the grammatical structure of the sentence. Thus, when a noun clause introduced by que occurs with the function of subject or, more generally, in sentence-initial position, the verb of such a noun clause is obligatorily in the subjunctive: qu'il ait raison ne fait plus de doute.

More frequently the conditioning is lexical in nature; the use of certain words or combinations of words require the use of the subjunctive. The lexical items -- verbs especially -- which call for the subjunctive in a following subordinate clause, are often classed in certain semantic groups, such as verbs of "feeling", verbs expressing orders, will, desire, request, etc. But such lexical classifications are extremely elusive for many words, even though they do contain some validity. For instance, it is a fact that verbs expressing "feeling" such as *craindre*, *avoir peur*, *regretter*, *s'étonner*, *se réjouir*, etc., require the subjunctive in a following complement clause introduced by *que*. But a verb like *espérer*, which also expresses a "feeling" requires the indicative: *je regrette qu'il ne soit pas venu*, but *j'espère qu'il viendra*.

For some verbs and verbal expressions the clause following may be introduced not by *que* but may take the form of a relative construction. Here the indicative is often used, especially when this construction is preceded by *de*: *je m'irrite qu'il parte sans s'excuser* -- *je m'irrite de ce qu'il part sans s'excuser*, but *je m'attends à ce qu'il vienne*, with the subjunctive. Likewise, in nominal clauses introduced by *que* and after verbs whose meaning is "desire", "will", "order","forbiddance", etc., the subjunctive is generally used: *je veux qu'il vienne*; *j'ordonne qu'on m'apporte à manger*. Though there is absolutely no possibility of establishing a hard and fast list, for many such verbs it is possible to consider, for practical purposes, that they are followed uniquely by the subjunctive. Actually, it is necessary to learn for each verb whether a subordinate nominal clause requires the indicative or the subjunctive and, for the verbs which may take either, the conditions for the use of one or the other mood. For instance, verbs like *croire*, *penser*, *admettre*, etc., take the indicative form when the verb form is accompanied neither by a negation nor an interrogation. When either, or both of these latter features are present, the verb is generally followed by the subjunctive, but this is not absolute. Some form of the indicative -- especially the conditional -- may be used. For pedagogical purposes, it is probably best to consider here the alternation of the moods as general: *je crois qu'il réussira* -- *je ne crois pas qu'il réussisse*.

For certain verbs of these types context alone is not decisive for determining the use of a given mood. The verb in question may be followed by either the subjunctive or the indicative according to whether the speaker or the writer wishes to underline or not, either a neutral or an emotive shade of meaning, the indicative being used in the former, the subjunctive in the latter. Thus a verb like *dire* is employed with the indicative for a simple statement, and with the subjunctive when "telling" implies an order. *Dis-lui qu'elle nous écrit souvent* (Tell him (her) that she writes us often). *Dis-lui qu'elle nous écrive souvent* (Tell her to write us often).

The possibility of choosing, in a given context, between the indicative and the subjunctive, exists for a number of verbs and verbal expressions whose general meaning is that of "perception" or "opinion", e.g. *entendre*, *supposer*, *comprendre*, etc. (most grammar books contain lists of such verbs): *je comprends qu'il ait voulu vivre avec ses amis* (*comprendre* = a feeling) -- *je comprends qu'il doit passer nous voir ce soir* (= intellectual comprehension). Likewise, *supposer* may take either mood. With the subjunctive, the idea expressed is a hypothesis: *je suppose que les conditions requises soit réalisées*. With the indicative, the meaning is less hypothetical: *je suppose que nous partirons bientôt* (I suppose we'll be leaving soon).

Often contextual features play a rôle. When these verbs are used with negation or interrogation, or even when the conditional form of such a verb occurs, there is a greater tendency to employ the subjunctive (cf. croire, penser, which belong to this class of meaning). Such verbs constitute borderline cases and pose delicate questions of style for which neither reference to meaning nor to contextual criteria permit a hard and fast solution. These are not the only examples of a possible choice, in a given context, between the indicative and the subjunctive. An oft-cited example is furnished by the pair: je cherche une maison qui a des volets verts -- je cherche une maison qui ait des volets verts. In the first example the house is envisaged as really existing. In the second example, the use of the subjunctive indicates that this existence is considered as doubtful. As these examples show, it is difficult to draw the line between the emotive (or stylistic) and the grammatical uses of the subjunctive. The literary language tends to use subjunctive forms more than the spoken language and to insist more upon such distinctions. Also, the choices made also tend to vary from speaker to speaker.

Verbs are not the only types of lexical items which govern the use of the subjunctive. Conjunctions may also require its use; e.g. afin que, pour que, de peur que, bien que, à moins que, quoi que, sans que, pourvu que and a number of others.

Nouns and adjectives, too, may also call for the use of the subjunctive. These are usually words of the same semantic type as the verbs marking "feeling": je suis surpris qu'il ait échoué;

je suis navré qu'il soit malade; *je suis étonné qu'il soit toujours vivant*; *je suis heureux qu'il soit reçu*; *j'éprouve un regret qu'il ne soit pas parmi nous*.

Another example is the use of the subjunctive in relative clauses when the substantive antecedent is modified by an adjective in turn modified by *le plus* (superlative), or when the substantive is modified by a word having superlative meaning: *l'unique*, *le seul*, *le dernier*, *le premier*; *c'est la seule maison qui ne soit pas vendue*; *le meilleur élève que nous ayons jamais eu*. Likewise a number of words or expressions, signifying, generally, zero quantity (negation) or small quantity, also call for the subjunctive: *je ne vois personne qui puisse nous aider*; *il y a peu d'hommes qui puissent rivaliser avec lui*.

These two types of conditioning -- grammatical and lexical -- are not mutually exclusive. They may combine. The example of verbs like *croire*, *penser*, when used in interrogative constructions, has already been cited. Likewise, in sentences where the verb of the main clause has as its subject "*il*", employed impersonally, a following noun clause requires the subjunctive except in a few expressions whose meaning "certainty" is incompatible with the use of the subjunctive. *Il faut que je boive*; *il suffit qu'il parte*; *il est faux qu'il soit déçu*; *il est naturel qu'il soit le premier*; *il est utile que tu sois présent*. But, *il est certain qu'il viendra*; *il est clair qu'il est le plus fort*; *il est probable que cet homme est coupable*; and likewise with words like: *sûr*, *évident*, *incontestable*, *vrai*, etc.

A few impersonal constructions and particularly *il apparaît* and *il semble* may be followed by either the subjunctive or the indicative. The use of the subjunctive marks an opinion rather than an affirmation: *il semble qu'il a beaucoup souffert* = an affirmation; *il semble qu'il ait mal travaillé* = an opinion. Also, when the above expressions of "certainty" are used in interrogative constructions, or with negative words, or when the verb of the clause in which they occur is a form in -*rais*, it is the subjunctive that often appears in a following subordinate clause: *il n'est pas probable qu'il vienne*.

If, in certain cases, the use of the subjunctive is obligatory, and mistakes in its use are *very* noticeable, in other cases there is a certain leeway, variable according to the degree to which the style is literary. In only a small number of cases is there a notable difference in meaning, equated generally with a strong (or marked) affective or expressive intent (subjunctive) or with a neutral one (indicative). A high degree of predictability based on contectual and lexical conditions exists, but it is not possible to reduce all uses of the subjunctive to such predictable situations.

H. *Tense and aspect relationships*.

Under the heading of tense are traditionally grouped a number of formal distinctions which are not all necessarily on the same plane. The relationship between two non-compound forms, such as the present indicative *je parle* and a future form *je parlerai*, is not the same as that holding between a non-compound form and the corresponding compound form: je parlerai -- j'aurai parlé. Only the first kind of distinction may be properly termed a tense distinction, insofar as it serves to situate, with respect to the moment of the act of speech, the time at which the action of the verb takes place. The second kind of distinction may be termed aspectual (the use of the term aspect is rare in French grammatical literature). The general difference between a non-compound form and a compound form (made up of the corresponding conjugated simple form of the verb avoir -- or, with a small number of verbs, être -- and the past participle form of the particular verb) is that the compound forms are used when it is desired to envisage as accomplished the action expressed by the non-compound form, and this, whatever the moment -- past, present, or future -- at which the process expressed by the verb is situated with respect to the moment the speech act takes place. In a strict sense -- perhaps more logical than linguistic -- the present refers to the moment of the speech act and delimits the spheres of past and future respectively. However, actual usage of the verb forms indicates that the relationship between compound and non-compound forms is sometimes more complex than this simple dichotomy indicates.

1. Conjugated forms.

Among the simple forms themselves, a number of other divisions are also necessary. Thus the forms in -ais, the imperfect (je chantais), and its corresponding compound form, the pluperfect (j'avais chanté), the conditional -- simple (je chanterais) and compound form (j'aurais chanté) -- also stand somewhat apart with respect to their relations to other forms of the indicative, and represent still other kinds of distinctions.

The number of indicative forms, simple and compound, is considerable. Some show considerable parallel in use with corresponding English forms; others do not. It is mainly these latter which will be discussed below.

a. Simple present form / all other verb forms.

The simple present form (je fais) is the basic tense form. It is used to represent actions which take place in present time (i.e. at the moment of the act of speech) but may also be used to represent past, future, and present time and time in general. Thus, in story-telling, once the time feature is understood from the context or marked by explicit past tense forms, the speaker or writer may often switch to the present forms even though the action related is actually past action. In these cases, grammarians speak of historical or narrative present. The present tense forms may likewise be used for expressing past or future time especially when these are not, temporally speaking, far removed from present time: il revient demain; d'où venez-vous? je sors de mon bureau (= je viens de sortir). After the conjunction si, the present indicative form often has future reference just like a present in English after if; s'il vient demain, je lui en parlerai -- if he comes tomorrow, I'll talk to him about it.

The present is also used to refer to time in general. It is used in proverbs, theorems, moral tenets, and other such general statements: rien ne sert à courir; il faut partir à temps; deux fois deux égalent quatre, etc. The present is also used to refer to

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habitual actions insofar as these persist at the time of the speech act (or at another moment when the present is used, as for stylistic purposes, in place of a past tense).

The present tense in French, represented by a simple form, is employed in two ways: 1) to represent general time, and 2) in opposition to past and future time reference.

In English, the situation is somewhat more complicated. Firstly, in English the simple present form, I go, etc., is relatively restricted in use, being limited by the existence of a progressive form -- I am going. The simple form is employed to express general truths, or habitual actions, whereas the progressive present form is used when the action is envisaged as in progress, or as actual. In French both these meanings are represented by the present indicative, with or without the aid of lexical terms such as en train de, en voie de. There is, however, one appreciable difference in the conception of the limits of the present tense in French and that in English. In English, to represent an action begun in the past but still persisting at the moment of speech, it is the beginning point in the past which serves as the criterion for the choice of the tense so that the verb form is past tense, and the feature of duration is expressed by the use of a progressive form: He has been ill for two weeks. In French, the essential criterion for the choice of tense is that the action expressed persists at the moment of the speech act, and it is the present tense that is employed: il est malade depuis deux semaines.

b. Present tense / future tense:

Although both in French and English, it is usual to refer to a future tense (je ferai), there is an important morphological difference between the two. The French future is a simple form whereas in English, it is a compound form: will or shall + infinitive. However, French can also express near future reference by use of the verb aller + infinitive: je vais te l'apporter. From the point of view of their respective uses, the differences between the uses of the French and English future tenses are not very great. There are a few cases, nevertheless, where the two languages differ. Thus, in French, the future is sometimes used instead of the present as a polite form. This is a stylistic procedure frequent in writing, especially letter-writing: je vous demanderai de m'envoyer...; je vous prierai de m'excuser. It usually occurs with the first person verb form. After certain conjunctions, the rules of grammar require the present in English, the future in French. Thus, in English, after when, as soon as: When he comes, I will deal with him contrasts with quand il viendra, je m'occuperai de lui.

c. Present / compound past.

From the point of view of its form the compound past is to be correlated with the present tense. It/is formed of the present tense of the verb avoir (or être) and the past participle of the particular verb. Like the other parallel constructions, it may be taken to express "action envisaged as accomplished with respect to present time". But it is also used in the spoken language to situate an action in the past without any reference to present time, that is, it serves as a narrative tense for describing that which belongs to the past. It corresponds to both the English present perfect and preterite: *I have seen* and *I saw*.

d. *Compound past / simple past.*

Literary French makes a distinction between two past tenses, the compound past and the simple past. In spoken French the compound past covers the range of both. In the written medium the compound past is confined to its narrow meaning of "recent accomplished past" similar to the English present perfect, that is, it stands in relation to the "present" of the speech act. The simple past is the tense used in the literary language for narration of what can be situated at a certain moment within a period in the past. Where use is made of this tense it plays a rôle similar to that played by the present, in that it serves as the point of reference for the other tense distinctions made in the accompanying text. It simply situates the action at a point in the past without any reference to its relation with the present. It corresponds, to a large extent, to the uses of the English simple past forms: *The war began in 1939*. In order to write correct literary French, it is necessary to learn to handle the simple past correctly. Although it may be considered dead within spoken French, it is very much alive in the written medium.

The tenses so far discussed are those which situate the temporal sphere of the verbal expression. As such, these are the forms which are generally used to introduce an act of speech and to make it progress. They do not, however, exhaust the possibilities of verbal expression. French has a series of indicative forms characterized by the ending -*ais*, which are parallel in a number of ways to the forms described, but which are not used in quite the same way. These forms are: the imperfect, je chantais which, in a way, parallels the present; the pluperfect, having "accomplished" meaning and which may be compared to the compound past; the conditional, je chanterais related to the future, with which it shares the -r- suffix; and also the compound conditional form, j'aurais chanté. These forms are not usually employed to situate an action on the time axis, but are used, as a rule, only after the time feature has been established, usually by one of the basic temporal forms, and particularly by one or the other of the past tenses.

e. Imperfect / compound past or simple past.

The imperfect may be considered to be a transposed present tense but it is not on the same plane as a past tense (compound past or simple past). Narration proper is in the domain of past forms, not of the imperfect. Once the basic time division of a given act of speech has been fixed as belonging to the past, the imperfect is used as a subsidiary descriptive tense, and marks that the time reference of the verb so employed is simultaneous with the basic time reference: j'ai assisté au mariage; mon frère y était aussi. At the same time, it also indicates that the action is considered as "not accomplished" in relation to the moment in question. As such, it often expresses the concepts of duration or of habitual action. However, in French, the imperfect is not used simply because the action considered lasted a long time or because it was habitual. If such action is considered as "accomplished", the imperfect cannot be used: *il est venu tous les jours pendant dix ans* (spoken), refers to a habitual action of long duration, but the imperfect is not used as the speaker's intention is to indicate that the "subject no longer comes". All this should not imply that the imperfect never occurs alone without an explicit past tense. Often the non-linguistic context or adverbial or other time indicators suffice. This is particularly true of the use of the verb *être*: *il a été général* implies that he is no longer a general; *il était général* has no such implication, but indicates rather a permanent characteristic. Thus the verbal process as expressed by the imperfect form (a simple form) may be considered, with respect to the aspect feature, to be envisaged as "non-accomplished".

The usual English translations of the imperfect are *used to* (*go*), *was* (*go*)*ing*, and *went*. The constructions of the type *was coming* correspond rather closely to the meaning of the imperfect, especially in sentences of the type: *pendant que je dormais, les voleurs m'ont cambriolé*; *je buvais mon café quand l'accident s'est produit*.

The imperfect does not only have relationship with past time. In conditional sentences (clauses introduced by *si*), its reference may be present or future: *s'il ne partait pas, nous pourrions finir le travail* -- *if he were not to leave, we could finish the work*. Here the French imperfect often corresponds in English to the subjunctive or to one of the constructions, *would* + infinitive, *should* + infinitive, or a subjunctive of the verb *to be* + infinitive: *si vous acceptiez, je serais très content* -- *if you* *accepted...*, *if you were to accept...*, *if you would accept*. *S'il venait, nous aurions grand plaisir à l'accueillir* -- *if he came...*, *if he were to come...*, *if he would come...*, *if he should come...* (*were he to come, should he come*) *we would be happy to receive him*. Usually, however, the translation by *should* plus the infinitive or the subjunctive of *to be* plus infinitive is reserved for sentences where the verb *devoir* is used to express an eventuality: *s'il devait venir*, *si vous deviez accepter...* .

Narration: In familiar spoken style, for the narration proper, the compound past (*il a chanté*) is used. For presenting what is contemporaneous in relation to this time the imperfect (*il chantait*) appears. When the speaker presents fictitious matter (i.e. outside of his personal experience), such as a story, the tense generally used for narration is the present tense with the present or the imperfect being used for accompanying contemporaneous acts. In written style, when the narrative tense is the simple past, the imperfect also serves to present accompanying contemporaneous events.

f. *Conditional / imperfect*.

The conditional may be considered to be a future form corresponding to the imperfect. In many grammar books the conditional is treated as a mood but, as we saw above, there is no reason to separate it from the indicative. The conditional forms are often parallel to the imperfect forms. This is especially apparent in conditional sentences where the occurrence of one form most usually supposes the occurrence of the other: *s'il venait*, *je le gâterais*. Thus, when the basis of the time reference is transposed to the past and it is desired to express a temporal relation that is no longer simultaneous with the point of time division but posterior (i.e. future), it is the conditional form that is used, not the imperfect: il a affirmé que je ne jouerais pas bien -- he declared that I would not play well; il a affirmé que je ne jouais pas bien -- he declared that I was not playing well.

In conditional sentences the imperfect is used parallel to the present indicative, when in the main clause the conditional is employed.

g. Conditional / present indicative.

As we have seen, the present tense is a tense whose basis of time reference is the moment of the act of speech. The forms in -ais, on the contrary, mark a transposition of this present basis, and imply a certain distance from it. The uses of the conditional with respect to the present indicative correspond with this difference. Thus, the conditional is used when it is desired to mark that the notion expressed by the verb is envisaged as something eventual, doubtful, unreal, that is, presented as belonging to supposition, possibility or probability rather than to the reality implied by the use of the present indicative form. Thus, it is used in sentences like: il serait le voleur (he is presumed to be the thief); dans cet accident, il y aurait eu des morts (there were, it is said, victims). This use is rather frequent in newspaper style for it is very succinct, but it also occurs in literary style, less frequently in the spoken language. This distinction is also possible in subordinate clauses: il aime ce garçon comme il aime son fils, il aime ce garçon comme il aimerait son fils. The second sentence implies that "il" does not have a son -- he loves the boy as he would love his own son (if he had one).

The conditional is also used to attenuate the expression of desires or wishes especially when these are expressed in the first person: je vous serais très reconnaissant de bien vouloir m'envoyer des specimens; je voudrais vous accompagner. In English, in similar types of sentences, the need for attenuation is less strongly felt, but the same forms nonetheless appear: I would (should) be most grateful; I would (should) like to ...

h. Conditional / future.

The conditional is in many ways parallel to the future. This is particularly evident in so-called conditional sentences. Here the difference between the use of the conditional and the future corresponds to the difference between the "condition" presented as eventual, doubtful or unreal and the "condition" presented as real or of high probability. It is thus possible to equate parallel sentences such as: si on me payait le voyage, je partirais -- si on me paie le voyage, je partirai.

The use of the conditional also often corresponds to the future in subordinate clauses when the verb of the main clause is a past tense. Thus, je dis qu'il viendra has as its counterpart when this sentence is transposed to past time reference: j'ai dit qu'il viendrait.

The difference in English between would (should) and will (shall) very often corresponds to the one existing in French between the conditional and the future.

The past conditional: j'aurais chanté stands in the same relation to the future anterior form j'aurai chanté as the simple conditional form to the simple future form. The compound forms both have the general meaning found in other such compounds -- "accomplished" -- in opposition to the simple forms.

i. Tense and aspect distinctions in the subjunctive.

The spoken language uses only two subjunctive forms: the "present" and the "past" subjunctive: que je vienne -- que je sois venu. The difference in meaning is that between "non-accomplished" and "accomplished."

In the written language, two other forms, the imperfect subjunctive: que je chantasse, and its compound equivalent que j'eusse chanté also occur. These latter forms are the subjunctive equivalents of the past indicative tenses (simple past, imperfect, conditional) and their compound forms, whereas the present and past subjunctive respectively correspond to the present and future forms, and their compound counterparts. It may be noted that in present-day written language the imperfect subjunctive (except the third person singular form) and its compound partner are not particularly frequent, but they do appear very frequently in the classical literature.

2. Non-conjugated forms.

Participles often have the functions of adjectives. Their verbal aspect is characterized by the fact that when they have complements these generally combine with participles in exactly the same manner as with the conjugated verbal forms. It is sometimes difficult nonetheless to sharply divide the class of adjectives and the class of participles.

The distinction between a compound form with the meaning "accomplished" and a simple form with the meaning "non-accomplished" is the sole temporal distinction found in the infinitive and the present participle: faire -- avoir fait; chantant -- ayant chanté. These forms do not correspond to the other tense distinctions found in the indicative forms.

a. The present participle.

The present participle occurs mainly (but not exclusively) with adjectival functions, that is as a noun phrase modifier, a function which has already been discussed in the study of noun phrases. It is sometimes difficult to decide whether one is confronted with an adjective or with a present participle, a verbal form. Generally when the participle enters into larger constructions, when it takes various kinds of complements, ambiguity disappears.

Like the personal conjugated forms of the verb, the present participle forms are of two types: simple and compound. The simple form takes active voice constructions. The compound forms are of two sorts: a) form having "accomplished" meaning in contrast to the simple form: ayant chanté -- chantant (cf. il a chanté -- il chante), and, b) constructions parallel to the passive voice: étant blessé -- ayant été blessé. Reflexive constructions are also possible with the present participle forms: se blessant, s'étant blessé, se souvenant de lui, etc. The various complements these participial forms take are the same as for the corresponding conjugated forms of the verb. Also, the present participle combines with negative modifiers in the same way as the personal forms of the verb: ne parlant jamais; ne se souvenant pas.

When the present participle shows specifically verbal characteristics, such as this combination with a negative modifier or a combination with a direct object, it remains invariable in form, that is, the number and gender marks characteristic of adjectives do not appear: une femme souffrant le martyre; une femme ne souffrant pas. In: une femme souffrante gender and number agreement appear since souffrante is here used as an adjective. Sometimes this distinction is marked by the position of adverbial modifiers, thus: une femme peu souffrante, with the adverb peu preceding as with adjectives (peu malade, peu doué, peu habile, etc.), but une femme souffrant peu with the adverb following and occurring in the same context as with personal verb forms.

In strictest usage, the difference, from the standpoint of meaning, is held to be one between the expression of a more or less permanent quality (adjective) and the expression of a temporary process or action coinciding with that expressed by the verb of the main clause, which may be past, present, or future (participle). Such criteria of meaning are not always obvious. The features of gender and number agreement and the combinatory possibilities -- verbal or adjective -- are the sole outward formal features affecting the participle form. The limits between these two types of functions are not always sharp.

The present participle may also occur with adverbial functions in the sentence, it is generally preceded by the preposition en: j'ai sauvé Paul en le poussant; il m'a salué en sortant. As can be seen from these examples, the subject of the verb of the main clause must be the same as that of the participle. In the above examples, je did the "pushing", and in the second, il was "leaving". When the subjects are not the same, it is necessary to replace the participle by a subordinate clause introduced by an adverbial conjunction: il m'a salué quand je suis sorti (or *au moment où je suis sorti*). A subordinate clause is also employed when it is desired to clarify the circumstantial relation expressed much more distinctly by a preposition. When the present participle is used it may be preceded only by *en*, whose range of meaning is unlimited (or better, it has no lexical meaning), whereas a clause may be introduced by any one of a number of prepositions. When the present participle construction *en* is preceded by the adverb *tout* (*tout en le poussant*), the meaning is generally specifically concessive ("although"). Sometimes~~,~~ the present participle form occurs alone, not preceded by *en*. In such cases, it is difficult to distinguish adverbial function from adjective function.

These present participle constructions correspond to English expressions where the participle appears alone, or else is introduced by a preposition or conjunction: *while going* ..., *when leaving* ..., *on entering*..., *by doing* ..., etc.

The present participle may also have its own subject, i.e. one different from that of the main clause, the group so constituted forming a circumstantial complement: *le travail étant fait, nous sommes partis*.

b. *The past participle*.

The past participle enters into various kinds of verb constructions: compound active voice forms, both transitive and intransitive, and passive voice constructions. Its general meaning is that of "accomplished" aspect.

When the past participle occurs as part of a compound active voice or reflexive construction, this compound form combines with a subject and with its various possible complements in the same manner as the corresponding simple active form: *il regarde ses enfants* -- *il a* *regardé ses enfants*; *le bateau échoue* -- *le bateau a échoué*; *il s'en souvient* -- *il s'en est souvenu*. When the past participle occurs alone, in adjectival function, it generally combines with complements in the same manner as when it occurs in the frame of a passive construction: *cet homme*, *blessé par un bandit*. (Note that *osé*, *réfléchi*, *entendu*, may not always occur with such passive meaning: *un homme réfléchi*; *une tentative osée*.) Also, the past participle of a few intransitive verbs (or so employed) whose compound past tense is formed with the verb *être* may appear alone: *arrivés tard, ils ne songeaient qu'à dormir*. With these latter verbs alone, the past and present participles may occur in identical contexts, the past participle having "accomplished" meaning and the present participle "non-accomplished" meaning: *les touristes venus d'Amérique*; *les touristes venant d'Amérique* (cf. *il est venu*, *il vient*).

When the past participle occurs as part of an active voice construction it generally remains invariable except when a direct object complement precedes the verb form of which the past participle is a part. This direct object may be either noun, a noun phrase, or noun phrase substitute: *la boîte que j'ai ouverte*; or an agglutinated pronoun: *cette boîte, je l'ai ouverte*. With verbs whose compound past forms use *être* as auxiliary verb with passive constructions, the agreement of the past participle when it appears alone is the same as that of the adjective.

There are cases where the English past participle is not used in the same way as the French past participle. For instance, for English *we heard the poem recited*, French requires: *nous avons entendu réciter le poème*, with an infinitive form where English uses a past participle form.

c. The infinitive.

Like the participles, the infinitive in French does not show variation of form with respect to the feature of person. However, grammatical distinctions of aspect and voice do occur. In the first case, a simple form, the present infinitive, stands in opposition to a compound form, and is parallel to the aspectual difference already encountered elsewhere in the verb system of French between a simple form having "unaccomplished" meaning and a compound form with "accomplished" meaning: chanter -- avoir chanté; partir -- être parti; se souvenir -- s'être souvenu. The simple form is basic and of much more frequent occurrence than the compound form. However, after the preposition après the compound form is obligatory in French: après avoir chanté, etc.

The second distinction is that of voice: a compound passive infinitive form also exists: être chanté; avoir été blessé. However, in some cases where it would seem "logical" to find a passive form, it is the simple infinitive form that occurs: un devoir à faire; un livre à lire.

From the point of view of the manner in which it combines with its various kinds of complements, the infinitive belongs to the verb class. From the point of view of its functions, however, the infinitive occurs, in many cases, with the same general grammatical functions as noun phrases. Infinitives (or phrases with an infinitive nucleus) appear with functions of subject, predicate, complement of object: direct, indirect or circumstantial, as a noun or an adjective complement:

1) subject: mentir est honteux.
2) predicative: promettre, c'est s'engager; partir, c'est mourir un peu; son but était de conquérir le monde.

3) direct object: *je veux partir*.

4) indirect object: *je m'attends à le voir*.

5) circumstantial object: *il vient me voir*; *il vient pour travailler*.

6) complement of a noun: *un livre à lire*.

7) complement of an adjective: *facile à faire*.

It would be amiss, however, to conclude that in all cases the infinitive and the noun phrase occur in a totally parallel manner and under identical conditions. Actually, there are contexts where one or the other alone may occur. For instance, after impersonal constructions of the type: *il est nécessaire de partir*, only an infinitive may occur.

The French infinitive corresponds generally to two different kinds of English words: to the English infinitive and to the English *-ing* form -- *driving*, *running*; *we like driving cars*; *running a modern business is difficult*; *we saw him running*. The French infinitive form corresponds to both the durative and non-durative meanings expressed in the difference between the English gerund and the English infinitive: *we saw him running away* -- *we saw him run away*; French, *nous l'avons vu s'enfuir*; *I hate waiting* -- *I hate to wait*; French *je déteste attendre*. To express a purely durative idea, French has recourse to the lexicon and not to the grammar: *je l'ai vu en train de s'enfuir*. It may also be noted here that if the English gerund upon occasion corresponds to the French infinitive, it may, in other cases, correspond to a French noun: *his coming* -- *sa venue*, etc. In translation exercises, the English gerund may be rendered, as required, by French words and constructions belonging also to other parts of speech than these: *a plan of his partner's devising* -- *un projet inventé* (*imaginé*) *par son partenaire*; *I don't want everybody coming at the same time* -- *je ne veux pas que tout le monde vienne en même temps*. Sometimes an English gerund may correspond to a French passive infinitive form: *cette cathédrale vaut la peine d'être vue* -- *that cathedral is worth seeing*.

The formal structure of the infinitive phrase in French and in English are somewhat different. Firstly, the French infinitive form is characterized by an ending whereas the English infinitive form is not: in English it is preceded, in many of its contexts, by the preposition *to*. Another difference concerns the place of the agglutinated pronouns which precede the infinitive form in French. Finally, the negative expressions such as *ne ... pas*, *ne ... rien*, *ne ... plus*, *ne ... jamais*, *ne ... point*. precede the infinitive form they modify; only *ne ... personne* and *ne ...que* remain separable expressions when they occur with the infinitive: *il nous demande de ne rien dire*, but *il s'engage à ne désavantager personne*. When the infinitive phrase comprises both agglutinated pronouns and such negative expressions, the latter occur first, the order being: negative word -- pronoun -- verb; *afin de ne pas le voir* .... Generally an adverb or other verb modifying word is not inserted between the agglutinated pronoun (or pronouns) and the verb form.

The main difficulties concerning the use of the infinitive do not, however, lie here. The problems concern rather 1) the cases in which an infinitive form is used and those where a clause is used (this question arises particularly in object functions); 2) the manner in which the infinitive form is linked to the verb form upon which it depends.

In many cases English and French coincide in the use of infinitive constructions, but there are also many cases where the two languages differ. Thus, if the two languages correspond in cases like: *he wants to read* -- *il veut lire*, English shows an infinitive phrase in: *he wants you to read*, whereas French requires a subordinate noun clause in the corresponding sentence: *il veut que vous lisiez*. For the non-native French speaker, it is important to learn when each of these types of grammatical construction is obligatory and the cases where both are equally possible. The cases where French and English differ must be specially learned, along with the types of complements a given verb may take.

With a great many French verbs that may be followed by an infinitive, the occurrence of the infinitive implies that the subject is the same for both verbs: *il veut partir*; *il aime jouer*; *il regrette d'avoir parlé*; *j'espère venir ce soir*, etc. When this condition is not fulfilled, a new clause is required: *il veut que je parte*; *il aime que je joue*; *il regrette que vous ayez parlé*; *j'espère que vous viendrez ce soir*, etc. With some verbs a clause is often employed even when the subjects are the same: *je crois que je vais me coucher*. This alternation infinitive/clause is often quite general when the infinitive phrase has circumstantial (adverbial) function, and is usually introduced by a preposition: *il est parti afin de pouvoir réfléchir en paix*; *il est parti afin que vous puissiez réfléchir en paix*.

There are, however, a sizeable number of verbs, many of frequent occurrence, which may be followed by an infinitive or infinitive phrase even though their subject and that of the infinitive are not identical. Among such verbs are many which have the general meaning of "telling" or "commanding" (but there is no strict correlation of grammatical structure with this general meaning). Examples of verbs of this type are *dire*, *commander*, *pardonner*, *demander* (see below), *ordonner*, *conseiller*, *proposer*, *reprocher*, *promettre*, *recommander*, *permettre*, *défendre*, *interdire*, etc. With these verbs, the following infinitive is introduced by the preposition *de*. The word or phrase designating the subject of the infinitive is treated formally like an indirect object of the verb of the above type: *il a demandé à mon frère de venir* -- *il lui a demandé de venir*, i.e. *il a demandé que mon frère vienne le voir*. Some verbs of this same general type require a direct object instead of an indirect object; for example, *prier*, *persuader*, *sommer*, *dispenser*, *empêcher*, *supplier*: *il a prié les passagers de le suivre* -- *il les a priés de le suivre*. A number of other verbs are constructed in a parallel manner, but with the following dependent infinitive introduced generally by *à*. Some frequently employed verbs of this type are: *obliger*, *résoudre*, *accoûtumer*, *engager*, *inviter*, *pousser*, *forcer*: *j'obligerai cet homme à obéir*, *je l'obligerai à obéir*; *l'agent invite le conducteur en infraction à le suivre au poste*, *il l'invite à le suivre*; etc.

To the same formal type as *dire*, etc., may be added a number of impersonal constructions: *il me tarde de vous voir*.

The second major problem for non-native French speakers concerns the manner in which the infinitive is linked to the verb to which it is subordinate. This difficulty mainly involves a question of memorization for the learner. Several possibilities exist here. These concern essentially the presence or absence of a preposition linking the inflected verb form to a following infinitive form, and if a preposition is required, the choice of the preposition -- *à* or *de*.* When the verb is followed by an infinitive functioning as an object other than a circumstantial object, there is generally no choice. The preposition, or the absence of preposition, is imposed, and it is sufficient to learn this for each verb: *il affirme avoir souffert*, *j'essaie de travailler*, *je cherche à m'évader*. Sometimes there is a double possibility where the two prepositions stand to each other in a relation of stylistic variants (i.e. there is no difference of meaning): *commencer à travailler* (more usual) and *commencer de travailler*; likewise, *continuer*, *solliciter*, and also among others, *forcer* and *obliger* mentioned above, are usually followed by *à* + infinitive, but may also be followed by *de*. There also exist a small number of cases where more than one preposition is possible after a given verb; and this corresponds to a more or less considerable difference of meaning. At the same time, the construction of the complements may vary somewhat: *j'ai demandé à faire le voyage* -- *je lui ai demandé de faire le voyage*; *j'ai décidé de partir* -- *je l'ai décidé à partir*; *je me suis décidé à partir*; *je m'occupe de faire quelque chose* -- *je m'occupe à faire quelque chose*. Circumstantial (adverbial) infinitive phrases may be introduced by a variety of prepositions; here the speaker disposes of a great number of possible terms, one of which is chosen to express the idea. It is rarer to find infinitives with this function not introduced by a preposition: *j'ai fini par comprendre*; *je travaille pour gagner ma vie*; *je viens voir les enfants*.

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*A sizeable concrete repertory is found in E. Lasserre -- *Est-ce à ou de*? Payot, Paris 1939.

The difficulties are also somewhat increased by the fact that after a given verb the constructions used when an infinitive follows and when a noun phrase follows are not necessarily identical. Often a preposition may be required before one of these two, but not for the other: je regrette son départ -- je regrette de le voir; j'attends de partir -- j'attends mon départ; etc.

The infinitive is also used in written French to express general instructions, orders, indications, etc., such as directions (mode d'emploi), recipes, medical prescriptions, etc., in cases where English would require an imperative form. Fondre le sucre, remuer, / verser dessus du lait, porter à ébullition; Prendre deux sachets matin et soir; Tenir au frais; A boire glacé. When actually addressing a person, it is the imperative forms that would generally be used.

It may be noted that where English often employs coordinated verb forms -- come on and hear, wait and see, etc.--French prefers constructions in which the second verb form is an infinitive: viens écouter; allez voir.

I. Modal auxiliaries.

In English, there exist a number of verbs like can, must, will, shall, may, etc., often referred to as modal auxiliary verbs. In English there are good formal reasons for classing such verbs apart. They occur only in limited contexts, comprise only a limited number of forms, and are generally linked directly to a following infinitive (without an intercalated to). In French, the existence of a special class of modal auxiliaries is less evident. The closest equivalent to English usage is furnished by the uses, already mentioned, of the present and imperfect forms of the verbs *aller* and *venir de* with their particular temporal shades of meaning. However, these forms belong with the verbs *aller* and *venir*; they are not distinct verbs. Verbs like *pouvoir*, *devoir*, which correspond in meaning to English modal auxiliaries have certain characteristics which approach those of modal auxiliaries. In the uses that concern us here, they are followed by an infinitive (note: *devoir* with the meaning "to owe" may take a noun phrase complement), but these verbs do not have the defective characteristics of their English equivalents; they are conjugated in all tenses and moods. The only forms they lack are passive constructions. If a verb like *devoir* is difficult for English learners of French to handle, it is because of the diversity of English expressions required to render it: *ought to*, *is supposed to*, *must have*, *is to*. But actually, in French, the form and meaning of *devoir* is quite regular, being that of "obligation" or "probability". The infinitive constructions with *devoir*, *pouvoir*, resemble, formally, those with *savoir*, *espérer*, etc: *je dois partir* -- *j'espère partir*; *je dois le rencontrer* -- *j'espère le rencontrer*; *je sais faire ce travail* -- *je dois faire ce travail*; *je peux faire ce travail*.

J. *Faire*.

The use of the verb *faire* followed by an infinitive requires particular mention. This construction, which has "causative" meaning: *j'ai fait faire le travail* -- *I had the work done*, differs from other types of finite verb + infinitive constructions. *Faire* and the infinitive constitute a closely tied unit. They may be separated by simple adverbial modifiers, negative or other -- in some rare cases by an agglutinated pronoun. But generally other complements, such as direct or indirect objects, whether noun phrases or noun phrase substitutes, cannot be intercalated: *il ne fait pas toujours travailler assez les élèves.*

A major difficulty is caused by the types of complements which this construction takes. If, starting from simple sentence models such as: *on joue la pièce*; *les acteurs jouent*, and the combination of the two: *les acteurs jouent la pièce*, it is desired to transpose these into a causative construction, the result is: *on fait jouer la pièce*, and: *on fait jouer les acteurs*, respectively. The terms corresponding to the subject and to the direct object of the verb *jouer* are treated, formally, alike, both noun phrases follow the group *faire* + infinitive as if direct objects of this verb group, and pronoun substitutes for both are agglutinated to the verb *faire*: *on la fait jouer* -- *on les fait jouer*: *fais-la jouer*. They are treated as if they were direct object complements of the block constituted by *faire* + infinitive. With other kinds of verbal groups already mentioned, this lack of distinction does not exist: *prier quelqu'un de venir*; *pousser quelqu'un à faire quelque chose* (*quelqu'un vient*, *quelqu'un fait quelque chose*), but with *faire* a sentence like: *je fais peindre les enfants* could mean either: "I am making the children paint" or "I am having them painted". However, the context or situation generally suffices to resolve such ambiguity. When the infinitive combining with *faire* is intransitive, such a complement is generally interpreted as the "subject" of the infinitive: *il fait partir les curieux* (*les curieux partent*). When the infinitive is transitive, the complement may be theoretically "subject" or direct object of the infinitive. Sometimes a clear distinction between the two is necessary for the proper comprehension of a given sentence (as in: je fais peindre les enfants), sometimes it is of little importance (cf. je fais tourner la plaque). This distinction between subject and object is not purely theoretical; expansions of faire + infinitive constructions by means of certain kinds of complements are linked to this distinction. When the infinitive following faire combines with an object complement, the actor or agent of the verbal process (i.e. corresponding to the subject in: les acteurs jouent) cannot be expressed by means of the formally undifferentiating construction described above. The actor is indicated by means of a prepositional construction: 1) introduced by par, as in passive constructions, even though here it is the simple infinitive form, which does not indicate voice, that is employed: nous ferons arrêter les malfaiteurs par la police; je fais peindre les enfants par un artiste célèbre; or, 2) the actor may take the form of an indirect object complement introduced by à: j'ai fait suivre des cours de danse à mes enfants; je fais peindre des aquarelles aux enfants. When a pronoun is substituted for such a prepositional phrase, it is the agglutinated indirect object pronoun that is employed, with faire: je leur ai fait suivre des course de danse; or, 3) it may be introduced for a small number of verbs by de: il se fait détester de tout le monde. The use of par is the most completely unabiguous of the three expressions. It is employed generally where the agentive idea is particularly evident. The indirect object construction with à is very frequent if not general with many verbs. Its uses overlap many of these with par, but there are verbs with which only one of the two is possible: à often occurs when the complement is not clearly agentive: j'ai fait mettre les gants aux enfants (I made the children put their gloves on), but often resembles an attributive complement. However, no general principles can be established. *De* occurs with verbs like *aimer*, *détester*, etc. whose agent complement in passive constructions may be introduced by *de*; *de* here may often be replaced by *par*. The use of the constructions with *à* and with *de* are not always absolutely unambiguous, since with the type of verbal construction under discussion, the other types of verbal complements (indirect objects, circumstantial complements) undergo no change: cf. *il a fait suivre des cours de danse aux enfants* (*les enfants suivent des cours de danse*) -- *il a fait décerner le prix à cet élève* (*on décerne le prix à cet élève*). Formally, the two constructions are the same. However, when such an indirect object complement occurs with a transitive verb, an agentive complement introduced by *par* is grammatically possible: *je vous ferai adresser des échantillons gratuits par notre bureau*. This is not possible when the indirect object introduced by *à* marks the agent (subject).

When an object complement follows the infinitive the expression of an agentive complement is generally not obligatory. It may be implicit as in passive constructions (*il a été blessé*): *faites conduire l'auto au garage*; *il a fait examiner son travail*.

When the subject of the verb *faire* and one of the complements which the construction combines with have the same personal reference, a reflexive construction is employed and the compound forms are conjugated with *être*; when the personal reference is third person, it is the pronoun *se* that appears: *il se fait passer pour un Français*; *il va se faire soigner par un spécialiste*; *le favori s'est fait battre par un adversaire acharné*; *vous vous êtes fait remarquer*; *ils savent se faire servir*. This reflexive pronoun, like other personal pronouns employed in a parallel manner may represent a direct or an indirect object: *il se fait lire le livre* (*se* = *à lui-même*);

il se fait servir le potage (cf. *on lui sert le potage*), both examples of an indirect object.

After *faire*, many verbs occurring normally as reflexive verbs often appear without a reflexive pronoun: *faites asseoir Monsieur Dupont*; *on devrait faire taire ce prétentieux*. It is not impossible to find a reflexive construction with the reflexive pronoun agglutinated to the infinitive: *on l'a fait se présenter aux examens*; *on l'a fait se marier*, where *le* (*l'*) and *se* have the same personal reference (it may be remarked that such constructions are possible but rather heavy).

In no case does the past participle of the verb *faire*, when employed in the formation of compound tenses, show gender and number agreement with a preceding complement of direct object occurring with *faire* + infinitive: *les maisons qu'on a fait abattre*.

The complement of the infinitive following *faire* may be a clause: *il fait dire qu'il est devenu riche*; *je vous fais remarquer que c'est l'heure du travail*.

K. *Laisser, etc.*

The general type of construction occurring with *faire* may also occur with a small number of other verbs; the most frequent of which so used are *laisser*, *voir*, *entendre*, *regarder*, *écouter*, *sentir*, and may even include such verbs as *remarquer*, *observer*: *j'ai laissé dormir les enfants* -- *je les ai laissés dormir*; *je laisse parler mes élèves* -- *je les laisse parler*: *il se laisse influencer par ses amis*; *il laisse peindre les enfants* -- *il les laisse peindre* (*des tableaux*); *il faut laisser faire ce travail aux élèves* (or *par les élèves*): *il faut leur laisser faire le travail*; *il se* *laisse aller*; *j'ai vu partir nos amis*; *ils ont vu venir la misère*; *il s'est vu interdire de jouer sa pièce en publique*; *nous avons vu couper les arbres par les bûcherons* -- *nous les avons vu couper par eux*; *nous avons senti venir l'orage* -- *nous l'avons senti venir*; *nous avons entendu dire des bêtises*, etc.

But this construction is not obligatory with these verbs. They may also be employed with a complement -- the "subject" of the infinitive occurring between one of these verbs and the following infinitive: *j'ai laissé les élèves faire ce travail* and with pronoun substitutes: *je les ai laissés le faire*. These resemble constructions of the type: *prier quelqu'un de faire quelque chose*, but without the linking preposition.

Strictest rules of written French grammar call for the agreement in gender and number of the past participle of these verbs when the "subject" of the infinitive precedes the verbal group: *les femmes que j'ai vues sortir* -- *je les ai vues sortir* -- *je les ai vues sortir* (*les femmes sortent*). However, by decree of the French Ministry of Education, absence of agreement is tolerated. In speech, these written variations of the past participle have no phonetic counterpart. They are all pronounced alike.

These verbs may combine into reflexive constructions: *il se laisse entraîner par des voyous*; *il s'entend critiquer par tout le monde*. These are always constructed in the same manner as they are with *faire*.

These verbs may also be followed by a past participle with a "passive" and "accomplished" meaning: *nous avons vu ouvrir les portes* -- *nous avons vu les portes ouvertes* (cf. *je trouve cet homme fatigué*).

The importance of these constructions is considerable in French. Besides their specific meaning, "causative" or other, they add another dimension to the simple sentence in addition to those of subject and object. At the same time, they constitute very useful stylistic devices. They often allow the speaker or writer to avoid the use of the passive voice and subordinate clauses. They also permit parallelism of grammatical construction between series of verbal phrases or of clauses which are not possible otherwise: il parle et fait parler de lui.

In present-day French the verb voir and its reflexive form se voir have become frequent in this kind of stylistic use (il se voit décerner le prix par le professeur has already been dealt with), and because of its intrinsic meaning which is more neutral than that of faire or laisser: il craint de se voir demander le remboursement immédiat de sa dette (il craint qu'on demande ...).

These French constructions differ in several important ways from the corresponding English expressions: I made him work, we let the boys sleep, we had the workers paint the house, etc. In English there is a degree of separability not found in French constructions of the type faire + infinitive. In English the subject and complement of the infinitive are marked by position. When these both occur in the sentence, English does not resort to the use of an agentive complement: where French employs an infinitive followed solely by a complement, English generally uses a passive construction: nous avons fait bâtir la maison -- we had the house built. Also the place of the French agglutinated pronouns may be a problem since they are not the same as in English.

IV. INVARIABLE WORDS

By the term invariable words are designated those forms which in French do not receive grammatical inflection. Of this type are the words traditionally classed as adverbs, prepositions and conjunctions. Certain of these have already been studied in the examination of the noun and verb structures in which they occur (e.g. adjective-modifying adverbs and certain uses of conjunctions and prepositions, etc.).

A. Adverbs.

Although there are many words which are specifically prepositions, adverbs or conjunctions, there exist such interrelations between many terms belonging to these various groups that they may be treated together. In many cases the functions they represent in the sentence are comparable, and their differences are due to what follows: 1) zero, 2) a clause, or 3) neither a clause nor zero. Adverbs are generally used to modify verbs, adjectives or other adverbs. Their use is in many ways parallel to their English equivalents, expecially as concerns the adverbs in -ment which are often identified with English adverbs in -ly: lentement -- slowly. French sometimes uses adjectives uninflected in gender and number in the same functions as adverbs: il voit clair, il parle haut; il chante juste, but expressions of this type are limited in number. In French and English the place of adverbs is similar, but with several notable exceptions: in French, adverbs cannot normally be intercalated between a conjugated verb form and its subject, as in English: he immediately left -- il partit immediatement, but in French, they may be intercalated between a conjugated auxiliary form avoir, être and a following past participle: il a longtemps hésité. The position which French adverbs (and adverbial phrases) used as circumstantial complements may occupy in the sentence, is nevertheless, relatively free and often a question of style or emphasis.

One particular type of adverbial modifier is constituted by the negative modifiers. These have many features in common with the negative nominals *ne ... rien*, *ne ... personne*, already discussed. Frequent adverbial negative words are: *ne ... pas*, *ne ... point*, *ne ... plus*, *ne ... jamais*, *ne ... guère*. These terms are separable; with a personal verb-form or with the present participle, *ne* precedes the verb form, from which it may be separated only by an agglutinated pronoun. The second element of the negation generally follows this verb form. These negative expressions thus bracket the verb-form bearing the mark of tense or aspect and generally that, also, of person: *je ne viendrai pas*; *je ne le lui dirai plus*. To give emphasis to the negation, the second term may also occupy the initial position in the phrase or clause: *jamais je ne lui pardonnerai sa conduite*. Combinations of these second elements are also possible: *plus* and *jamais* may combine with each other and also with *rien* and *personne*: *je ne vois plus jamais personne*; *je ne comprends plus rien*; *on ne le verra plus jamais*; the order is: *plus* - *jamais* $\frac{\text{personne}}{\text{rien}}$. *Guère* may combine with *plus*: *je n'ai plus guère d'argent*. It may also be followed by *que*: *on ne l'emploie guère que dans la langue écrite*. *Pas* and *point*, on the contrary, cannot combine with one of these elements. Before an infinitive, *ne ... pas*, *ne ... point* form an inseparable group. They precede it and may be separated from it only by an agglutinated pronoun: *je regrette de ne pas parler chinois*. The bracketing of the infinitive as with the personal verb forms is rare and literary and need not be taught. Likewise, *ne ... plus*, *ne ... jamais*: *il regrette de ne jamais voyager*.

Before a past participle which is not part of a compound verb form, or before an adjective, *ne* is not employed: *un homme pas pressé*; *un homme plus très jeune*. Nor is it used when these negative words are employed to answer questions: *jamais* - *never*; *plus* (*plus de bêtises*) - *no more* ... (The use of *d'avantage* avoids ambiguity here.) Instead of *pas*, the form *non* is used in answer to questions.

The above expressions are not the sole negative possibilities: *il n'est nullement responsable*; *je ne comprends quoi que ce soit*. With a small number of verbs -- *oser*, *pouvoir*, *savoir*, *cesser* -- and in some set expressions, *ne* may occur alone as the negation; however, *ne ... pas* may also be used: *je n'ose espèrer*; *il ne cesse de parler*; *il ne peut gagner*. *Ne ... pas*, however, is more emphatic here.

The expression *ne ... que* (only) has the same general structure as these expressions. However, its contextual behavior is somewhat different. It always occurs as a separable expression; *que* immediately precedes the word or phrase it restricts: *il ne voit que son intérêt*; *il ne cherche qu'à partir*; *il n'a fait que son devoir*; *je n'ai vu venir que deux personnes*. Unlike the above terms, *que* may combine with *pas*: *il n'y a pas que des avantages* is the negative of: *il n'y a que des avantages*. In loose spoken style, the first element *ne* is often suppressed: [ivjẽpa] = *il ne vient pas*.

B. *Prepositions*.

Prepositions have been termed "transitive" adverbs. This definition is based on the fact that they are followed by a complement, whereas adverbs are not. On the other hand, the difference between prepositions and conjunctions which are also "transitive" is that the complement of the conjunction is a clause whereas for the preposition it is a word or phrase other than a clause: noun phrase, noun phrase substitute, infinitive, present participle, adverb, adjective, etc. The relations between adverbs and prepositions are evident, as indicated by such series as: *dans* -- *dedans*, *sur* -- *dessus*, *hors* -- *dehors*, etc. These are pairs of alternating terms, the one adverb, the other preposition. Also, the same word may be used as both a preposition and an adverb: *passe devant moi* -- *passe devant*; *je suis pour* cette solution -- je suis pour; to these may be added expressions belonging to familiar spoken style which are not accepted by purists: il est parti avec, that is, with avec not followed by a complement.

There are a number of terms which function only as prepositions: the two basic ones are à and de. Sometimes, the use of one or the other corresponds to a difference of meaning in a given context: une tasse à café -- une tasse de café; il vient de découvrir le vol -- (he has just) -- il vient à découvrir le vol (he happens to...). These kinds of functional contexts are the easiest for non-native French speakers to retain, particularly when the preposition in question possesses a precise spatial or temporal meaning which may be equated with the corresponding English uses of prepositions. In this respect French often shows less differentiation than English. Thus French à, in its spatial sense may indicate either a static or a kinetic relation. In English these two are differentiated. Thus, to à, in il est à Paris, English at (or in), and for il va à Paris, à corresponds to English to.

However, in many other cases, the use of a given preposition is imposed by the context in which it occurs, that is, by one or several of the elements to which it is linked grammatically. De and à occur especially often in such contexts: il refuse d'obéir, il consent à partir. Often there exist combinatory alternations: en hiver but au printemps; en France but au Canada; en France but dans la France méridionale, where the name of a country is modified (however, en Amérique du Sud, en Afrique du Nord are more current than dans l'Amérique du Sud, dans l'Afrique du Nord). The frequency of such alternations and the criteria governing their appearance make them a source of difficulty: on se confie à quelqu'un but on a confiance en quelqu'un and dans quelque chose. In all these cases the preposition is imposed and cannot be said to have a meaning that is properly independent of the construction in which it occurs.

In many cases, the uses of these prepositions are not at all "logical", as e.g. proche de -- near to, and loin de -- far from. Often, there is no correspondence between French and English expressions with respect to prepositions; cf. il parle du nez -- he speaks through his nose; il est au lit -- he is in bed; par terre -- on the ground. A given spatial, temporal or other relation may not be approached from the same viewpoint in both languages. The result is a complex learning problem.

The prepositions are of two types: simple and compound forms. The compound forms contain a lexical element plus a simple preposition, generally de: à cause de, en raison de, à propos de, au sujet de; sometimes other simple prepositions so combine: grâce à, jusqu'à, jusqu'en. A list of common simple prepositions is: à, de, chez, avant, devant, après, derrière, avec, sans, contre, vers, dans, dès, en, entre, outre, selon, par, parmi, pour, sous, sur, depuis. Words also belonging to other parts of speech occur: concernant, durant, pendant, suivant, moyennant (present participles); excepté, passé, sauf (past participles, adjectives).

Some prepositions take only a nominal complement (also a noun substitute) -- a pronoun: others may have either a noun phrase or an infinitive as their complement: chez mon frère, chez elle represent the limits of the use of chez (noun complement only) whereas à, de, sans, pour, par, may be followed by a word of either type, noun phrase or infinitive: il a fait des sacrifices pour moi; que faut-il faire pour réussir? En may be followed not only by a noun, but also by the present participle: en ville; en parlant, this latter combination referred to in French grammars as the "gérondif", an unfortunate expression.

C. Conjunctions.

When the complement of the "transitive adverb" is a clause, grammarians designate the "transitive adverb" which serves to introduce circumstantial clauses (i.e. having adverbial function) *as a conjunction*. French has four simple conjunctions introducing adverbial clauses: *si*, *quand*, and *comme* which are followed by a verb form in the indicative mood, and *que*, which may be followed by either the indicative mood or the subjunctive mood as the grammatical or lexical context may require. *Comme* and *quand* are purely adverbial in nature, *si* and *que* may also introduce nominal clauses, and *que*, alone, also relative clauses. All the uses of *que* as a clause introducer may be considered to be related, the differences are in grammatical function. The basic, and most frequently used conjunction is, by far, *que*, which may combine with various other lexical items and particularly with adverbs (or adverbial expressions) or with prepositions to form a great number of compound conjunctions: *bien que*, *pour que*, *afin que*, *de sorte que*, *heureusement que*, *quoique*, *après que*, *lorsque*, *pourvu que*, *avant que*, *sans que*, *dès que*, *aussitôt que*, *selon que*, *à mesure que*, *outre que*, etc. Sometimes it is necessary to intercalate the unmarked deictic word *ce* between the transitive adverb and conjunction *que*. This results in a kind of relative construction: *jusqu'à ce que*; *de manière à ce que*.

The other simple conjunctions may also be used as the basis for the formation of compound forms: *quand bien même*, *comme si*.

Si is employed with the functions of an adverbial conjunction in so-called conditional sentences: *s'il venait, je le battrais*, already treated in the section dealing with the verb. Examples of the use of *comme* and *quand* are: *je l'aime comme il est*, *quand il apportera les* *marchandises, je le paierai*; *quand il sort, il oublie de fermer la porte*.

One learning problem which exists for a number of common conjunctions and conjunctive constructions is raised by differences in the use of tenses in parallel French and English forms. Thus, the adverbial conjunction *si* cannot be followed by a verb form in *-r-* (future or conditional), whereas English *if* may be followed by a future or conditional form: *if he would study, he would be at the head of the class* -- *s'il étudiait, il serait le premier de sa classe*. An example of the opposite is furnished by English *when*, *as soon as*, etc., which in "future" sentences are followed by the present tense verb form: *when he comes, I will give him the message* -- *quand il viendra* ... . The same is true of *dès que*, *aussitôt que*, parallel to English *after*: *after he sang, we left*. English speakers are often tempted to use a preterite after the French conjunction *après que*, which in written style is followed most often by a *passé antérieur* (*eût chanté*) and in more oral style by a *passé surcomposé* (*a eu chanté*). The first form is impossible in speech and the second not usual for many speakers. French speakers get around this problem by using sentence construction where the preposition *après* is possible, i.e. *après l'avoir entendu chanté, nous sommes partis*, or else they will use *quand* which combines more freely with various tense forms.

Another problem is that of the proper mood to be used with the conjunction *que* and the compound conjunctions whose last element is *que*. This must be learned for each conjunction: *avant qu'il vienne*, *sans qu'il sache*, *à moins qu'il ne vienne*, etc., with the subjunctive, but *alors qu'il parlait*, *pendant qu'il marchait*, *parce qu'il était malade*, etc., with the indicative.

Instead of repeating the conjunction, before each of a series of subordinate clauses, French uses que: pendant qu'il se reposait et que nous nous promenions; quand il fait beau et qu'on travaille, on ne peut pas se concentrer. Que may also be used in place of si in a like manner; for this replacement, however, the verb is obligatorily employed with the subjunctive mood: s'il fait bien son travail et que je sois content, il aura une récompense; je sors toujours à cinq heures, qu'il fasse beau ou mauvaise.

The close relationship existing between adverbs, prepositions and conjunctions, makes it necessary to treat them together. In order to speak and write correct French, the speaker or writer must know how to use these terms with precision, according to the grammatical structure of the sentence or clause.

D. Voici, voilà.

The pair of forms voici /vuasi/ and voilà /vuala/ constitute in French a unique type. They possess a number of features in common with verbs, other features in common with demonstratives and certain occurrences which ally them to adverbs and prepositions. As they are invariable words they are often classed as adverbs. In their most concrete sense, these words are generally employed with a gesture, for they serve to indicate or to present in a manner analogous to ce ... -ci and ce ... -là. Theoretically voici indicates that which is nearer to the speaker than what is indicated by voilà. Like the demonstrative forms which may take -ci, (e.g. ceci), voici indicates that which follows, and, like forms taking -là, (e.g. cela), voilà may indicate what has been said. However, in speech when no such opposition is expressed, voilà is employed much more frequently than *voici*. Then words may be followed by a complement which most usually is a nominal word: *voilà nos invités*, but may also be of other types: *voici ce que je veux*, *voilà qu'on apporte le café*. When a nominal complement is replaced by a pronoun it is the agglutinated direct object pronoun that is place before *voici*, *voilà*: *le voici*, *nous voilà bien arrivés*. In speech especially, these forms may occur in a type of subordinate construction: *la belle que voilà ira les ramasser*. There are also uses which are essentially adverbial: *voilà longtemps qu'il ne vient plus*. These forms may combine with the prefix *re*-: *revoici*, *revoilà*, to give a reduplicative meaning (*again*).

The use of *voici* and *voilà* in the classroom is practical, but care must be taken not to abuse them, particularly for *voici*. It is preferable to try to find natural examples of their use. When this is not possible, it is perhaps better to use another construction.